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PEACE HANDBOOKS

VOL. XV

PARTITION OF AFRICA:
BRITISH POSSESSIONS (I)

1920



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PEACE HANDBOOKS

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VOL. XV.

PARTITION OF AFRICA: BRITISH POSSESSIONS (I)

- 89. THE PARTITION OF AFRICA
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CALIFORNIA

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Editorial Note.

IN the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connection with the preparation which they were making for the work of the Peace Conference, established a special section whose duty it should be to provide the British Delegates to the Peace Conference with information in the most convenient form—geographical, economic, historical, social, religious and political—respecting the different countries, districts, islands, &c., with which they might have to deal. In addition, volumes were prepared on certain general subjects, mostly of an historical nature, concerning which it appeared that a special study would be useful.

The historical information was compiled by trained writers on historical subjects, who (in most cases) gave their services without any remuneration. For the geographical sections valuable assistance was given by the Intelligence Division (Naval Staff) of the Admiralty; and for the economic sections, by the War Trade Intelligence Department, which had been established by the Foreign Office. Of the maps accompanying the series, some were prepared by the above-mentioned department of the Admiralty, but the bulk of them were the work of the Geographical Section of the General Staff (Military Intelligence Division) of the War Office.

Now that the Conference has nearly completed its task, the Foreign Office, in response to numerous enquiries and requests, has decided to issue the books for public use, believing that they will be useful to students of history, politics, economics and foreign affairs, to publicists generally and to business men and travellers. It is hardly necessary to say that some of the subjects dealt with in the series have not in fact come under discussion at the Peace Conference; but, as the books treating of them contain valuable information, it has been thought advisable to include them.

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It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain or as identifying itself with all the opinions expressed in the several volumes; the books were not prepared in the Foreign Office itself, but are in the nature of information provided for the Foreign Office and the British Delegation.

The books are now published, with a few exceptions, substantially as they were issued for the use of the Delegates. No attempt has been made to bring them up to date, for, in the first place, such a process would have entailed a great loss of time and a prohibitive expense; and, in the second, the political and other conditions of a great part of Europe and of the Nearer and Middle East are still unsettled and in such a state of flux that any attempt to describe them would have been incorrect or misleading. The books are therefore to be taken as describing, in general, *ante-bellum* conditions, though in a few cases, where it seemed specially desirable, the account has been brought down to a later date.

G. W. PROTHERO,

General Editor and formerly

Director of the Historical Section.

January 1920.

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PARTITION OF AFRICA

I. GENERAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1494 Treaty of Tordesillas between Spain and Portugal.
- 1578 Defeat of King Sebastian of Portugal at Kasr-al-Kabir.
- 1588 Royal Charter granted to British merchants for trade with Senegambia.
- 1798 Napoleon Bonaparte lands in Egypt.
- 1814 Cession of the Cape of Good Hope to Great Britain.
- 1817 France recovers her Senegal settlements.
- 1830 France undertakes the conquest of Algeria.
- 1834 Slavery abolished throughout the British Empire.
- 1845 French settlement founded on the Gabun River.
- 1861 Great Britain annexes Lagos Island.
- 1863 France purchases Obok.
- 1873 Transfer to Great Britain of Dutch territory on the Gold Coast.
- 1875 Great Britain acquires Khedive's shares in the Suez Canal.
- 1876 Leopold, King of the Belgians, summons a conference of geographical experts of all nationalities. Foundation of the Caisse de la Dette in Egypt.
- 1877 Great Britain annexes the Transvaal. Stanley crosses Africa and reaches the mouth of the Congo.
- 1881 French expansion inland from the Senegal River. Occupation of Tunis. Convention of Pretoria between Great Britain and South African Republic.
- 1882 Revolt of Arabi Pasha. France withdraws from Egypt. Military intervention by Great Britain. Italy occupies Assab. Foundation of German Colonial Society.
- 1883 France delivers an ultimatum to Madagascar.
- 1884 Foundation of German colonial empire in Africa. German flag hoisted in Togoland, Cameroon, and German South-West and East Africa. London Convention between Great Britain and South African Republic. British Somaliland declared a Protectorate. International Congress on African affairs meets at Berlin.

- 1885 Fall of Khartum. General Act of the Berlin Conference signed. Constitution of the Congo Free State. Oil Rivers territory proclaimed a British Protectorate. British occupation of Bechuanaland. Spanish Protectorate declared over Rio de Oro district.
- 1886 Royal Niger Company is authorised to administer Lower Niger territories, and extends influence northward. International Commission meets to determine limits of Sultan of Zanzibar's dominions.
- 1888 British East Africa Company receives a Royal Charter. Italy consolidates her position on the Red Sea coast. Rhodes secures full mineral rights in Matabeleland.
- 1889 Treaty between Italy and Ethiopia. Italian occupation of Benadir ports. France establishes protection over Niger kingdoms. Portugal fails to substantiate her claim to territories lying between Angola and Mozambique. British Protectorate declared over Shire Highlands. Foundation of British South Africa Company. International Conference on African affairs meets at Brussels.
- 1890 Anglo-German Agreement. Spheres of influence defined in East, West, and South-West Africa. General Act of the Brussels Conference signed. Declarations by Great Britain and France in respect of Zanzibar, Madagascar, and the Central Sahara. The Sultan of Zanzibar cedes mainland territories to Germany. British Protectorate over Zanzibar.
- 1891 Anglo-Italian Protocols. Spheres of influence defined on Red Sea and Somali coasts. Anglo-Portuguese Treaty. Spheres of influence defined in East and Central Africa.
- 1892 British Protectorate of Zanzibar placed under Free Trade provisions of "Berlin Act." Consolidation of French power on Ivory Coast.
- 1893 Conquest of Dahomey. British East Africa Company surrenders its charter, rights, and property to the Crown.
- 1894 French extension from Dahomey and Timbuktu towards Lower Niger. British Protectorate declared over Uganda. Anglo-Congolese Boundary Agreement.
- 1895 France occupies the Upper Ubanghi territories and advances towards the Nile Valley. Attempted Italian occupation of Tigre province.
- 1896 The Emperor Menelik defeats the Italian army at Adowa. Italy abandons her claim to a protectorate over Ethiopia.
- 1897 France occupies Niki and Busa. The Protectorate of German East Africa declared a German colony.
- 1898 Anglo-French Convention. Spheres of influence defined east and west of the Niger. Battle of Omdurman and capture of Khartum. Major Marchand's expedition reaches Fashoda.

- 1899 Anglo-French Declaration. France withdraws from the Nile Valley. War declared between Great Britain and the Boer Republics. Agreement between Great Britain and the Khedive concerning the Sudan.
- 1900 Annexation by Great Britain of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. France conquers Lake Chad kingdoms.
- 1901 The Crown assumes control of territories administered by the Royal Niger Company. Protectorate declared over Northern Nigeria.
- 1902 Peace concluded between Great Britain and the Boer Republics. German troops reach Lake Chad.
- 1903 The Herero tribes rise against German rule in German South-West Africa.
- 1904 Anglo-French Convention and Declaration. Settlement of outstanding questions in West and Central Africa and in Morocco and Egypt. Franco-Spanish Declaration respecting integrity of Morocco. The Namaqua tribes join the Herero rising.

- 1905 The German Emperor visits Tangier. British, Italian, and Abyssinian forces reduce the Mullah of Somaliland to submission. Native rising in German East Africa.
- 1906 Algeiras Conference. Responsible government granted to the Transvaal and Orange River Colonies.
- 1907 Herr Dernburg, Imperial Colonial Secretary, visits German East Africa and inaugurates new regime.
- 1908 Belgium assumes the right of sovereignty over the Congo Free State. Meeting of South African Convention to consider the question of Union.
- 1909 Constitution of the Union of South Africa. Germany declares her interests in Morocco to be essentially economic. Hostilities resumed with the Mullah in Somaliland.
- 1910 British administration of Somaliland confined to coastal regions. Spain temporarily reduces the Rif country (Morocco) to submission.
- 1911 Despatch of German warship *Panther* to Agadir Bay. International crisis. Franco-German Conventions signed in respect of Morocco and French Equatorial Africa. Turco-Italian war. Italy invades Tripoli and Cyrenaica.
- 1912 Treaty of Ouchy (Lausanne) establishes Italian sovereignty in the Tripolitaine. France recognises a Spanish Protectorate over the Rif country (Morocco).
- 1914 Reoccupation of British Somaliland. Egypt declared a British Protectorate.

(1) INTRODUCTION

BEFORE the middle of the nineteenth century Africa was, broadly speaking, known to the outside world as a series of coast-lines rather than as a continent. The north, apart from Egypt, which was Asiatic rather than African in character, was primarily regarded as the southern fringe of the Mediterranean; the west was the eastern shore of the Atlantic basin, its history being bound up with that of the West Indies and America; the south, though colonized by the Dutch and the British, was above all the turning point and stopping place on the route to the East and later the half-way house to Australia; while the east coast of Africa was the western shore of the Indian Ocean, with Arab and East Indian connections.

The opening up of the continent, the tracing of the course of the great rivers, and the discovery of the great lakes were largely due to scientific progress, missionary enterprise, and to the crusade against the slave trade between the coast and the interior. There were indeed noted African explorers before Livingstone, but, more than any other man, he was the father of the new era, which may be dated from the twenty years of his travels between 1853 and 1873.

Early Colonial Effort.—The Portuguese were the original European explorers, exploiters, and lords of the African coasts. By the middle of the sixteenth century this adventurous race held the island of Goree under the shadow of Cape Verde, several posts between the Senegal River and Cape Blanco, and trading stations on the Lower Gambia and on the rivers between the Gambia and Sierra Leone. Portuguese rule was firmly established also at various points on the Gold Coast and on the coast of Dahomey, at Lagos, at Old Calabar, and on the Cameroon River, while an alliance was formed with the powerful kings of the Lower Congo. Further south, the colony of Angola was founded; and on the East African coast the Portu-

gueese reigned supreme in virtue of Vasco da Gama's great voyages, and of the capture from the Arabs of Mogadishu, Lamu, Malinda, Mombasa, Zanzibar, Kilwa, Mozambique, Quelimane, Sena, and Sofala. Portugal was also in close touch with Abyssinia; and on the Mediterranean littoral she succeeded in building up a species of empire over Northern Morocco. But the defeat and death of King Sebastian at Kasr al-Kabir in 1578, and the subsequent fusion of the crowns of Portugal and Spain, were to deal a fatal blow at Portuguese prestige in Africa.

Before long the Dutch, eager for a footing on the African coasts, seized the Portuguese settlements in Senegal and on the Gold Coast, and attempted to establish themselves in Angola and Mozambique.

About the same time French chartered companies began trading on the Senegal River, an operation which soon brought them into conflict with the Dutch and was to result in the latter being driven out of their Senegambian forts. After this event the French proceeded vigorously to develop their settlements at or near the mouth of the Senegal, and the close of the seventeenth century witnessed the despatch of expeditions inland as far as the mountainous region of the Upper Senegal. Though the seed then sown was not to bear fruit until a century and a half later, modern French West African policy may be said to date from this enterprise.

Meanwhile British companies of merchant adventurers had established a growing trade with the coast of West Africa, and the Royal Charter granted in 1588 to certain Devonshire merchants, entitling them to carry on commerce with Senegambia, laid the foundation of the oldest British colony in Africa, Gambia. During the next hundred years British ships sailed in increasing numbers to the Gambia, Sierra Leone, and the Gold Coast, and by the end of the seventeenth century British influence had begun to predominate in these regions.

This century witnessed British colonial expansion in

other directions; and, when Portugal recovered her independence in 1640, it was deemed expedient to renew the ancient Treaty of Alliance of 1373. In 1642, therefore, a Treaty of Peace, Commerce, and Alliance was signed. This was confirmed by the Marriage Treaty of Charles II, signed June 23, 1661, which imposed upon Great Britain the duty of defending and protecting the Portuguese colonies in return for the cession of Bombay, Tangier, and other Portuguese possessions. This obligation has been held binding ever since and has considerably influenced the relations between Great Britain and Portugal. During the latter half of the seventeenth century, the Portuguese made a determined, if shortlived, effort to regain their African empire. On the west coast, the colony of Angola was extended southwards to Mossâmedes, and a claim set up to the coast-line as far south as Cape Frio. On the east, where the Arabs had retaken many of the coast towns wrested from them by followers of Vasco da Gama, Portugal determined about the middle of the eighteenth century to relinquish her foothold north of the Rovuma and to turn her attention to extending her influence over the interior of Mozambique and Zambesia. Thus, Portuguese slave-traders, pushing their way across the continent from Mozambique to Angola, spread Portuguese civilization as they went, and established friendly relations with the powerful Bantu kingdoms of the southern basin of the Congo.

During this time the Dutch steadily enlarged their colonial empire, and in 1652 took possession of Table Bay. Seven years later they acquired the whole of the Cape of Good Hope peninsula, and by the beginning of the eighteenth century the boundaries of the colony had been carried north, west, and east to the Berg River, the Zwartenberg Mountains, and the Gamtoos River. During the eighteenth century the district of Graaf Reinet was formed and the northern frontier pushed as far as the Sneeuwbergen.

But the oppressive rule and gradual decay of the Dutch East India Company, who administered the

territory, hampered its colonisation by white races. Furthermore, the importance of Cape Town as a port of call on the way to India was manifest, and during the latter part of the century it became abundantly clear that either England or France would seize the district at the first opportunity. This arose in 1781, on the entry of Holland into the war with Great Britain, and the British Government lost no time in despatching an expeditionary force to seize the coveted possession. The attempt failed, but in 1795, on this occasion with the authorisation of the Prince of Orange, Cape Town was garrisoned by a British force. Although the Cape was surrendered to Holland by the Peace of Amiens in 1802, possession of it was resumed on a permanent basis by Great Britain in 1806. The colony was formally and finally ceded by Holland in 1814.

French influence in Senegal remained paramount until the middle of the eighteenth century. The settlements were then captured by the British, who kept them until 1778, and, taking them again five years later, held them throughout the Napoleonic Wars. Thus, for more than half a century, France had practically no foothold on the African coast.

Excepting in Morocco, the Ottoman Turks replaced the Arabs in northern Africa, and the sixteenth century saw Turkish influence firmly established in Egypt, Tripoli, Tunis, and Algeria. After the Emperor Charles V had attempted unsuccessfully to found a Spanish empire on the North African coast, the Porte ruled comparatively undisturbed until Bonaparte, fresh from his first Italian campaign, eluded the British fleet, and landed at the head of 40,000 troops at Alexandria on July 2, 1798. Although Great Britain eventually shattered Napoleon's dream of an eastern empire, of which Egypt was to have been the keystone, the invasion of this country by the French brought it into touch with European civilization and prepared the way for its detachment from the Ottoman Empire.

In 1817 France recovered her Senegal settlements

and at once resumed the task of extending and consolidating her influence in this region. Thirteen years later she undertook the conquest of Algeria.

Great Britain's position on the West African coast was now more clearly defined, and British sovereignty and protection were soon to transform the scattered settlements on the Gambia and on the Sierra Leone and Gold Coasts into thriving colonies. In South Africa, the British extended the northern frontiers of the Cape to the Orange River. The immigrants of 1820-21 introduced a strong British element into the colony, the eastern part of which, owing to the distribution of the new settlers, became British in race and language as compared with the central and western, which remained principally Dutch. In 1833, the Cape received a regular constitution as a Crown Colony. About this time an extension of British influence was taking place in the district now known as Natal, where British settlers had acquired certain territories from the Zulu chief Chaka.

After the expulsion of the Portuguese by the Arabs from Zanzibar and Mombasa, the East African coast from Somaliland to the Rovuma River had come under the power of the Imam of Muscat. An attempt made in 1824 by the East India Company to occupy Mombasa was unsuccessful; but British influence began nevertheless to predominate at Zanzibar. A series of quarrels, which arose in the royal family of Muscat, resulted in 1861 in the intervention of the Indian Government and in the separation of the Sultanate of Zanzibar from the Imamate of Muscat. The following year Great Britain and France signed a Declaration engaging, reciprocally, to respect the independence of these States.

The Dutch hold over the Gold Coast, and over the West African trade generally, received its death-blow on the abolition of slavery by the Netherlands Government in 1848. The Dutch forts and towns were finally made over to Great Britain in 1871 in exchange for the recognition of various Dutch claims in the Far East.

Of the slave-trading posts established by other European nations on the Gold Coast during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the Brandenburg African Company, founded in 1681, came to an end in 1720; the Swedes soon abandoned their stations; and, though Denmark for a time retained four of her forts, these were bought by Great Britain in 1850 for the sum of 10,000*l*.

Colonial thought in Europe in the 19th Century.— From the fifteenth century onward, exploration and missionary enterprise had worked side by side in Africa. Further, the old colonial system, based upon trade considerations, tended to introduce, at least superficially, European habits and customs into the continent. Towards the close of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth, leaders of religious and philanthropic thought combined to discredit an order of things which took into account neither the interest of the native nor the well-being of the world as a whole. It followed, therefore, that the outstanding features of the old colonial system were gradually done away with. The new outlook bore fruit in the foundation of various missionary societies, who by the beginning of the nineteenth century had established their agents at Sierra Leone and other points on the West African coast. In 1806 a Bill passed the British Parliament which put an end to the British slave trade for foreign supply; and in 1811 a Bill was passed which declared the slave trade to be an offence punishable by transportation. Under this law the trade, as far as Great Britain was concerned, was effectually suppressed. At her instance, moreover, the trade was condemned in principle by the Congress of Vienna, and in 1834 slavery was abolished as a legal condition throughout the British Empire.

Lack of space precludes other than the briefest allusion to the magnitude of the rôle assumed by Great Britain in regard to the suppression of slavery in Africa. Placing herself in the vanguard of the movement, she not only made large monetary payments to

Spain and Portugal to induce them to abandon the traffic, and spent many millions of pounds in compensating slave-owners and in founding Sierra Leone as a settlement for redeemed slaves; but also, at great cost in life and money, patrolled the coasts of the continent for many years. These efforts on the part of Great Britain, the repeal of her navigation laws in 1849, and the removal in 1860 of differential duties in favour of colonial products, were among the measures which not only played a vital part in the history of African civilisation, but served to awake other Colonial Powers to the need for similar legislation. Thus, in 1853 Portugal established freedom of trade in her East African dominions and in 1878 abolished slavery; while France abolished slavery in 1848, and in 1867 embarked on a comprehensive series of changes, which culminated in the abrogation of her navigation laws and in the revision of the prevailing system of colonial administration.

By the middle of the nineteenth century Great Britain was undergoing rapid industrial development, and in the circumstances it was natural that the Government and the nation as a whole should consider their colonial heritage largely in regard to its commercial value. For this reason unproductive possessions were allowed to decay—as, for instance, those West African colonies of which the commercial value since the abolition of slavery had become practically nil¹—while further enterprise in regions of unproved utility was severely discouraged. But a new era of thought was dawning, and when Disraeli in 1866 described England as “more of an Asiatic than a European Power,”² he indicated a new conception of the duties and potentialities of the British Empire, to which he was afterwards, during his administration (1874-80), to lend a powerful stimulus. Commercial profit ceased to be the ruling consideration.

¹ See Report from the Select Committees on Africa [Western Coast], 1865, H.C. 412.

² Speech at Aylesbury, July 13, 1866.

In France, the force of circumstances had engendered a different colonial ideal. Although, like Great Britain, she had experienced a period of commercial development and prosperity, a series of political disturbances had tended to concentrate the attention of her people chiefly on domestic affairs. But political considerations frequently led to expeditions abroad, calculated to increase the confidence of the nation in its rulers; and a spirit of adventure and acquisition was thus fostered, which not only survived the downfall of the Napoleonic tradition, but enabled France to contemplate building up a colonial empire that should compensate in some degree for the European position lost in 1870-71.

The development of the colonial idea in Germany was due in the first instance to pedagogic influences; and, shortly after the foundation of the Empire, a number of enthusiasts inaugurated a movement for acquiring overseas possessions.¹ At the beginning purely theoretical and sentimental, the movement was to assume more practical shape when the need arose for opening up new markets for the fast-growing German industries and for diverting emigration into channels where it would not be wholly lost to the nation. It is remarkable, however, that later, as the German Empire increased in prosperity, emigration declined, the figures of emigrants being 171,000 in 1885 and only 22,921 in 1898, and only a very small percentage of this number went to the German colonies. Nevertheless, the question of colonial expansion took increasingly firm hold on the German mind, and presently found expression in the Reichstag. But Bismarck was not ready, and the "Kolonialmenschen," as they were called, were to remain until 1883 a discredited element in the eyes of Europe. Later, when a series of political events had not only guaranteed the stability of the German Empire, but caused the Great Powers to fix the orientation of their policy to a large extent by reference to

¹ See *German Colonization*, No. 42 of this series.

Berlin, the movement was given free rein. This, however, was not yet, and in 1875 the German conception of overseas expansion was still in its academic stage.

The Italian colonial movement belongs likewise to a later date; and Spain, originally excluded from Africa under the Treaty of Tordesillas (1494),¹ still turned her eyes westward. Portugal, on the other hand, living in the tradition of a great African empire, and in right of her historic, if decaying, settlements, claimed vast tracts of unexplored territory in the interior of the continent.

In approaching the operations of the Powers in Africa from 1875 onwards, mention should first be made of the guiding principles which were accepted by the colonising Powers and were ultimately embodied in the General Acts of the Conferences of Berlin and Brussels. These are:—

1. The General Act of the Berlin Conference of 1884-85, which defined the conventional basin of the Congo, prohibited slave trade within that area, decreed freedom of navigation and trade on the Congo and Niger, and laid down rules for future occupation on the continent.
2. The General Act of the Brussels Conference of 1889-90, which inaugurated fresh measures for the suppression of the slave trade, and established a zone within which the importation of firearms and ammunition was forbidden, except in specified instances, and within which the

¹ By a Bull dated September 23, 1493, Pope Alexander VI declared the lands newly discovered by Columbus to be open equally to Spain and Portugal, on the understanding that Spain should approach them by the westward passage only, and not infringe Portugal's monopoly of the African coast. Under the Treaty of Tordesillas (1494), the two countries fixed as the boundary of their areas a meridian 370 leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands, which was intended to mark a midway line between the Azores, the westernmost of Portugal's colonies, and the new islands in the West Indies supposed to be the most easterly of the Spanish possessions.

signatory Powers undertook to prohibit the importation and manufacture of spirituous liquors.

2. THE PORTUGUESE IN AFRICA

It has been seen that supremacy in Africa passed in the seventeenth century from Portugal to Holland, and in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries from Holland to Great Britain and France. But Portugal still held considerable stretches of coast-lands on the east and west of the continent, and, though she allowed these settlements to sink into stagnation and decay, she clung to her position as an African Power.¹

In West Africa, Portuguese Guinea remained practically untouched by the territorial changes which took place around it. The French, occupying the Futa-Jalon district in 1881, closed the door on the expansion of the colony, whose natural hinterland this region would have been, and completed its enclosure on the land side by the acquisition of French Guinea. The Franco-Portuguese Convention of 1886 determined the spheres of influence of the respective Powers.

Meanwhile, the journeys of Livingstone, Cameron, and Stanley, and the international undertaking which was to result in the formation of the Congo Free State, awoke Portugal to the importance of substantiating her claim to the *hinterland* of her possessions in Angola and Mozambique. Three explorers, Serpa Pinto, Capello, and Ivens, were accordingly despatched to extend Portuguese influence in the interior. Pinto, leaving St. Paul de Loanda in 1877, marched east to the Zambezi, and, descending that river to the Barotse country, crossed the Kalahari Desert to the Transvaal. Capello and Ivens explored the northern part of Angola and the basin of the Kwango. Later they

¹ See *Portuguese Colonial Empire*, No. 115 of this series.

succeeded in tracing the Upper Zambezi to its source, and, after travelling along the watershed between that river and the Congo, descended the Zambezi to the Indian Ocean.

Portuguese rights to both banks of the mouth of the Congo were recognised by Great Britain, under the convention of 1884 (*cf.* p. 39); and, though these claims were necessarily modified by the creation of the Congo Free State, Portugal afterwards regained nearly the whole of the disputed territory. Thus, on the northern bank she obtained recognition of the Cabinda enclave in virtue of the Franco-Portuguese Convention of 1886 and of the Conventions of 1885 and 1891 with the Congo Free State; while the latter arrangement established Portuguese rule over the southern bank of the Congo from the coast as far as Noki. The German-Portuguese Declaration of 1886 provided for the demarcation of the frontier between Angola and German South-West Africa, and, in common with the Franco-Portuguese Convention of the same year, recognised Portugal's right to the regions lying between Angola and Mozambique.

The attention of the Portuguese was directed to their East African colony by Livingstone's discoveries in the Zambezi basin (1858-64), and by the consequent establishment of various British settlements at the southern end of Lake Nyasa and in the Shire Highlands. An opportunity of extending Portugal's dominions arose in connection with the boundary treaty concluded in 1869 with the Transvaal, under which the Portuguese reasserted their right to Delagoa Bay, the southern shore of which was claimed by Great Britain. The dispute being referred to the arbitration of the French President in 1872, the latter's decision, delivered in 1875, was entirely in favour of Portugal, who in the meantime had agreed not to part with the territory to any third Power. This verdict and the Berlin Conference of 1884-85 gave additional stimulus to the reviving colonial activity of the Portuguese, who began to extend in South-East Africa, and to advance

territorial claims which brought them into collision with Great Britain in the Tonga country.

A difficulty of a more serious nature arose further north, where British expansion in Matabeleland and Mashonaland threatened Portugal's long-asserted claim to the territories lying between Angola and Mozambique. In 1889, Serpa Pinto was despatched ostensibly to extend Portuguese influence in the Zambezi basin. Suddenly deflecting north, however, Pinto sought to obtain possession of the Shire Highlands by a *coup de main*. The attempt proved a failure, owing to the determination and energy of the resident British officials, who placed the district under British protection. Their action was subsequently upheld by the British Government, and an ultimatum was sent (1890) to Portugal (*cf.* p. 31). Prolonged negotiations resulted in a *modus vivendi*, and later an agreement was reached under the Anglo-Portuguese Treaty of 1891, by which Portugal was left in possession of the coastlands, Great Britain maintaining her right to the Matabele and Mashona territories and to the sphere afterwards known as the Nyasaland Protectorate.

This instrument, supplemented by an exchange of Notes in 1895, provided also for the demarcation of the frontier between Portuguese East Africa and Tongaland. The frontier with the Transvaal and Swaziland, defined under the Treaty of 1869, was confirmed in 1875, while on the north the Declaration of 1886 between Germany and Portugal, supplemented by an exchange of Notes in 1894, fixed the boundary line of their respective spheres from Cape Delgado to Lake Nyasa.

The Anglo-Portuguese Treaty of 1891, which, besides effecting territorial readjustment in Central Africa, laid down the interior limits of Angola south of the eleventh parallel, assigned the Barotse kingdom to the British sphere, without, however, precisely defining the frontier of that country. In 1903 the question was referred to the arbitration of the King of Italy, who, by his award, delivered in 1905, defined

the twenty-fourth meridian as the most easterly limit of Portuguese influence from the Congo Free State to 13° south.

3. THE FRENCH IN AFRICA

French African policy during the last quarter of the nineteenth century was the outcome of a plan, consciously formulated, for the building up of a colonial empire that should compensate in some measure for the position lost in Europe in 1870-71.

The difficulties attending the conquest of Algeria and the part played by France in the Franco-British-Italian commission appointed in 1869 to control Tunisian finances served to concentrate French attention on North Africa during the first years of the Third Republic. The natural result, therefore, of the consolidation of French rule in Algeria was to carry the tricolour southward into the Sahara.

At first progress was slow and the tribes offered a determined and often successful resistance to the expeditions sent against them; but the establishment of French control in Tunis had a powerful effect on the native mind, and resulted eventually in the pacification of the Tuareg country.

Acting on hints given to its representative at the Congress of Berlin in 1878, the French Government induced the Bey of Tunis in 1881 to accept French protection, which, based on the Treaty of the Bardo or Kassar-Said, was confirmed in 1883.

Meanwhile, a series of events in Egypt had necessitated European intervention. The foundation of the Caisse de la Dette in 1876 was followed by the establishment of a dual control shared by France and Great Britain. Excepting for a short period, during which Ismail Pasha set aside his European advisers, this system of government obtained until the crisis brought about by the revolt of Arabi Pasha. After lengthy discussion, Gambetta persuaded Lord Granville to acquiesce in joint intervention. Gambetta's fall, early in 1882, however, upset this arrangement; and, when

the British Government prepared to take military action, the French fleet left Alexandria. Shortly afterwards, the defeat of Freycinet's Ministry on a vote of credit for money to send ships to protect the Suez Canal finally ended the question of French military intervention in Egypt.

The withdrawal of the French from Egypt was followed by their expansion on the Somali coast. Obok,¹ purchased in 1863 as a set-off to the British occupation of Perim, was extended southward, so as to include the Bay of Tajura, and inland towards Harrar. Besides making good her foothold on the Gulf of Aden, France prepared to put an end to the anomaly of her position in Madagascar. In 1868 she had formally recognised the independence of the island, but a series of disputes led to an ultimatum, delivered in 1863. Upon the refusal of the Malagasy to comply with the French demands, war was declared, and it virtually established French protection over the island. The recognition of this by Great Britain under the Anglo-French Declaration of 1890,² together with the British acknowledgment of French influence over the whole of the Central Sahara, constituted the *quid pro quo* of French recognition of British supremacy in Zanzibar, agreed to on the same day by a separate Declaration.

French domination over the Upper Niger territories was an essential objective of the policy which sought to create an empire stretching from the Mediterranean to the Gulf of Guinea, and from the Atlantic to the Nile. In 1881, therefore, Captain (afterwards General) Gallieni was despatched up the Senegal to build a railway to connect that river with the Upper Niger. The next ten years witnessed a succession of military expeditions, which eventually brought Kaarta and Segou under the French flag and opened the road to Timbuktu, finally captured in 1894.

¹ Afterwards called Côte Française des Somalis.

² In 1865 Great Britain had agreed to recognise the independence of the island.

Meanwhile, in 1881 French protection had been established over Futa-Jalon, an important area forming the *hinterland* respectively of Gambia, the Kasamance district of Senegal, Portuguese Guinea, and the French coast colony of Les Rivières du Sud.¹ The new protectorate was acknowledged by Portugal under the Franco-Portuguese Convention of 1886, and by Great Britain under the Anglo-French Arrangement of 1889.² This agreement, moreover, supplemented by that of 1895, definitely put an end to British expansion north and east of Sierra Leone.

Another event of far-reaching importance was the establishment in 1888-1890 of French protection over the kingdoms lying within the great northern bend of the Niger. The result of this enterprise was to open up the *hinterland* of the French settlements on the Ivory Coast; and the annexation of the coast between Grand Bassam and Liberia followed in 1892 by arrangement with Great Britain. The boundary with Liberia and the interior, laid down the same year, secured to France the whole basin of the Upper Niger and its affluents.³ The frontier with the Gold Coast Colony was fixed under the Anglo-French Arrangement of 1893, which, however, left the territory north of the ninth parallel undefined. The Franco-German and Anglo-French Conventions of 1897 and 1898 prolonged the eastern boundary of the Ivory Coast Colony to 11° N., and fixed this parallel roughly as the boundary between the French territories in the Niger bend and the Gold Coast Colony and Togoland.

French designs on the Niger were furthered by the final conquest of Dahomey in 1893. On the west, the frontier with Togoland was eventually defined by the Franco-German Convention of 1897, supplemented by

¹ Later known as French Guinea.

² French supremacy in the *hinterland* of Gambia was again recognised by Great Britain under the Anglo-French Convention of 1904, which gave France the river port of Yarbata.

³ The frontier was finally determined by the Franco-Liberian Agreement of 1907.

the Declaration of 1912. On the east, the Anglo-French Arrangement of 1889 determined the line between the French colony and Lagos as far as the ninth parallel, but made no provision for the demarcation of the district further north. The Anglo-French Declaration of 1890 recognised French influence in the Central Sahara as far south as a line drawn from Say on the Niger to Barrua on Lake Chad. All access to the Lower Niger by means of the left bank of the river was thus cut off. The right bank, however, lay open in so far that the Anglo-French spheres were not defined in the region between the ninth parallel and Say. France was quick to avail herself of the opening, and step by step expeditions from Timbuktu and from Dahomey carried French influence to a converging point. This was reached in 1897, when, in spite of Great Britain's claim to a protectorate over the Borgu country, Busa and Niki were occupied (*cf.* p. 27). The situation thus created was serious, but a compromise was effected by the Anglo-French Convention of 1898.¹

During this time an extension of French influence had taken place in the Gabun, which was in line with the movement that carried the tricolour across the Sahara and from the coast of Senegal to Lake Chad.

The settlement on the Gabun River owes its origin to the decision of the French Government in 1845 to provide a port on the Lower Guinea coast where men-of-war might revictual. A measure of success attended the undertaking, but owing to the Franco-German War the new colony was practically abandoned.

The work of exploration went on, nevertheless, and in 1875 de Brazza, nominally in the service of the International African Association,² was despatched by the French Committee into the interior. The explorer

¹ Under this arrangement France withdrew from Busa, but kept Niki and a great part of Borgu. The Say-Barrua line was also modified so as to give her both banks of the Niger as far as Ilo.

² Later the Congo Free State. See *infra*: 5. *The Belgians in Africa*, p. 38, *et seq.*

ascended the Ogowe and penetrated the country lying to the north of that river; then, hearing of Stanley's great trans-continental journey, travelled rapidly overland to Stanley Pool, planting the tri-colour and making treaties for France as he went. De Brazza's next step was to establish French influence in the region of the Sanga and Ubanghi Rivers, and to explore fully the country behind the Gabun River and Loango. The last-named seaport was occupied by France in 1883, and the boundary line with the Portuguese territory of Cabinda was settled shortly afterwards by the Franco-Portuguese Convention of 1886.

These acquisitions gave rise to a keen and even bitter rivalry between French interests and those of the International African Association, represented by Stanley. A compromise was effected, however, by the Franco-Congolese Convention of 1885. Two years later an additional agreement defined the fourth parallel as the northern limit of the Free State. But this arrangement was not adhered to by the Congo authorities, who in 1891-92 contrived to push back the French frontier to 9° N. This difficulty, together with that occasioned by the Anglo-Congolese Agreement of 1894, which France held to be prejudicial to her advance towards the Nile, was finally settled by an agreement signed later in the same year. Under it King Leopold renounced all claim to the area west of 30° E., and north from a line drawn from that meridian to the Nile along 5° 30' N.; while France agreed to recognise the Mbomu River as the northern frontier of the Free State.¹

Meanwhile the disputed Spanish claim to territory lying between the Campo and Gabun Rivers was being investigated by a joint commission which began to sit in

¹ The right of pre-emption over the territories in the Congo basin, enjoyed by France in virtue of Notes exchanged in 1884, was finally accepted by Belgium under the Agreement of 1908, which also defined the frontier of the Lower Congo.

Paris in 1886.¹ Germany's occupation of Cameroon was followed by the Franco-German Protocols of 1885 and 1894, which laid down the boundary of French Equatorial Africa, confirming the French right to extend northward to Lake Chad. This extension had begun in 1890, when France, strengthening her hold on the Sanga and Ubanghi, prepared to push up the Shari to the shores of that lake. The same movement carried her eastwards towards Darfur and Bahr el-Ghazal. In 1895-97 she took possession of the Upper Ubanghi territories and advanced towards the Nile, which Major Marchand's expedition reached at Fashoda in 1898. Negotiations of some delicacy followed, but a crisis was averted; and it was ultimately agreed under the Declaration of 1899, which completed the Anglo-French Convention of the preceding year, that French influence should have as boundary the water parting between the watersheds of the Nile and the Congo. In return for the evacuation of the Nile Valley, France secured exclusive powers of extension in the kingdoms of Chad, Baghirmi, Wadai, and Kanem. After considerable fighting the subjugation of the warlike inhabitants of these territories was achieved by expeditions from Senegal, Algiers, and the French Congo, which, under Liotard and Gentil, combined to defeat Rabah, the powerful Sultan of Bornu, in 1900.

The conclusion of the 1898 and 1899 agreements with Great Britain left the French free to effect the consolidation of their empire in other directions. In 1903 a French protectorate was established over the Moorish territories to the north of the Lower Senegal, and the following year these regions were formally constituted the territory of Mauretania. The effective area of French control was further increased by the acquisition during 1905-6 of the oases of Air, Bilna,

¹ The Franco-Spanish Convention of 1900, which eventually delimited the frontier with the Rio Muni settlement [Spanish Guinea], secured to Spain a block of country with a coast-line from the Campo to the Muni, and gave France the right of pre-emption over this territory and the adjacent islands.

and Janet in the Central Sahara, and by the conquest of Adrar, which was added to the Mauretanian territory in 1909.

The work of the Anglo-French Convention of 1898 and the Declaration of 1899 was completed by the Convention and Declaration of 1904, which set at rest the outstanding questions between the two countries, including that of French liberty of action in Morocco.¹ The position of France in Morocco was further recognised by the Franco-Spanish Declaration of 1904. At first, the German Government offered no objection to the arrangement, but within a few months the reverses suffered by Russia in Manchuria materially altered the situation, and Germany accordingly showed her hand. On March 31, 1905, shortly after the battle of Mukden, the German Emperor visited Tangier, and proclaimed himself the champion of Moroccan integrity. This was followed by a demand for a conference of the European Powers, and by the resignation of the French Foreign Minister, M. Delcassé, who opposed this measure. The French Government thereupon agreed to the principle of a conference, and representatives of Austria-Hungary, France, Germany, Great Britain, Russia, and Spain met at Algeciras on January 16, 1906. With great difficulty the reconciliation of French and German claims was effected and a scheme of reforms elaborated. The General Act, embodying the resolutions of the Conference, was signed on April 7 of the same year. Amongst other things it was provided that French capital should be allotted a larger share than that of any other Power in the newly-constituted Moorish State Bank, while French and Spanish officers were entrusted with the organization of a Moorish police force for the maintenance of order in the principal coast towns.

The new regime was ushered in by a series of outrages, which demonstrated the weakness of the central

¹ Under this arrangement France agreed to recognise Great Britain's position in Egypt in return for British acknowledgment of French supremacy in Morocco.

authority. Meanwhile the Sultan Abd el-Aziz was overthrown by his brother, Mulai-Hafid, who, after some negotiation, was recognised in 1909 by the Powers as Sultan in his stead. The same year France signed a declaration with Germany, under which the latter acknowledged her interests in Morocco to be essentially economic, and engaged not to impede the political interests of France in that country.

The year 1911 marked a further stage in Franco-German relations in Morocco. Germany, encouraged by her success in the Near Eastern crisis of 1908, determined to improve the position which she had been obliged by the Algeciras Conference to accept; and on July 1 the German cruiser *Panther* cast anchor off Agadir, ostensibly to protect German interests in that place. In reality the incident betokened a demand for a port on the Atlantic, with claims over an indefinite *winterland*. This principle was wholly unacceptable to both Great Britain and France, and in August war seemed imminent. At length, after a period of acute international tension, a compromise was reached, Germany agreeing to withdraw her pretensions to the Sus country and to recognise a French protectorate over Morocco in return for substantial concessions in French Equatorial Africa. These consisted of wedge-shaped territories which not only gave Germany access to the Congo and to the Ubanghi, but had the practical effect of reducing the Gabun and Middle Congo colonies to the position of an enclave. Further, a strip of territory was added to Cameroon, which thus enclosed the Spanish settlement of Rio Muni inland; and France renounced the right of pre-emption over this area and the adjacent islands. In accordance with this arrangement Morocco was declared a French protectorate in 1912 and recognised as such by Great Britain and Germany.

The negotiations between France and Spain concerning the limits of their respective spheres in North-West Africa, originally contemplated under the Franco-Spanish Convention of 1904, were terminated by the

Franco-Spanish Convention of 1912, which acknowledged a Spanish protectorate in the Spanish zone, and agreed that Tangier and the adjacent district should become an international zone some 140 square miles in extent.¹ This instrument also defined the frontier between Morocco and Rio de Oro, and provided for the recognition of the Spanish establishment of Ifni and the district round Cape Nun.

4. THE BRITISH IN AFRICA

While the French African Empire sprang from a national reawakening to the sense of colonial destiny, the British Empire in Africa came into being with no such conscious aim. Since Elizabethan times Englishmen have sought to open up new trade routes, and this impulse led to the foundation of the British West African Empire, to the acquisition of the South African territories, and to the extension of British influence on the East African coast.

West Africa

In general, the character of British West African policy between the years 1865 and 1895 was based on the findings of the Parliamentary Committee of 1865, and tended to isolate Great Britain's various possessions in that region.

In 1866 Sierra Leone was made the seat of government for the "West African Settlements," but in 1874 the Gold Coast and Lagos were detached from the administration and in 1888 Gambia was divided from Sierra Leone, which thus became a separate crown colony. As early as 1868 frontier difficulties developed with the French coastal settlements, and in 1870 and again in 1875 negotiations were opened

¹ Article 7 of the treaty made provision for the establishment at a later date of a separate form of administration for the town and district of Tangier.

between Great Britain and France for the regulation of their positions in Western Africa on the basis of a mutual exchange of territories, including Gambia. The scheme, however, was strongly opposed on sentimental grounds, and came to nothing. Meanwhile a policy of calculated inactivity on the part of Great Britain resulted in 1880 in the establishment of French protection over the districts forming the hinterland of Gambia and Sierra Leone.

The transfer to Great Britain of Dutch territory on the Gold Coast in 1871 entailed a quarrel with the powerful kingdom of Ashanti, and though the campaign of 1873-74 forced King Kofi Karikari to acknowledge Great Britain's supremacy on the coast, relations with Ashanti continued to be unsatisfactory until 1895, when the Home Government despatched an expedition, which established British protection over the whole area.¹

The formal annexation of Lagos Island in 1861 was followed by a gradual extension of British influence, which by 1886 predominated in the coast territories from Dahomey to Benin. Further south, the establishment of British trade in the Niger Delta in the region known as the Oil Rivers District, about the middle of the nineteenth century, led to an attempt to open up the interior, but for various reasons this premature development was abandoned. Meanwhile French and German traders were attracted to the district, and fierce competition ensued. To meet this Sir George (then Captain) Taubman Goldie in 1879 formed the United African Company, with the object of developing British trade at the expense of less united rivals. It was just in time. The following year saw the establishment of two French firms, under the recognised protection of the French Government; and the setting up of numerous trading stations on the Lower Niger was admittedly in line with the French extension from Senegal toward the upper

¹ The territory was formally annexed in 1901.

waters of that river. At length, after a costly struggle, the French concerns were bought out by the British company, now become the National African Company, and a few days later the British representative at the Berlin Conference of 1884-85 was able to state that England alone possessed trading interests on the Lower Niger. The Oil Rivers Protectorate was formally proclaimed in June 1885. The following year the National African Company received a Royal Charter, and under the title of Royal Niger Company was authorised to administer the territory bordering the Niger from Lokoja to the sea, and on the coast from the Forcados to the Nun mouth of the river. The company at once opened negotiations with the Sultans of Sokoto and Gandu; and a nominal extension of territory was carried over the whole sphere of influence thus secured, which frustrated the efforts of the German Colonial Society in this region.

The expansion of British and French coastal possessions led to the Arrangement of 1889, which gave Great Britain control of the Great Scarcies River and of the Sulimama and Kouranko territories lying between Sierra Leone and the headwaters of the Upper Niger, but debarred her from access to that river and from the *hinterland* of Gambia.¹

Meanwhile the German occupation of Togoland and Cameroon in 1884 necessitated the definition of Anglo-German spheres of influence. This was accomplished by the Agreements of 1890 and 1893, which delimited respectively the boundary between the Gold Coast and Togoland, from the coast to the confluence of the Rivers Volta and Dakka, and that between Southern Nigeria and Cameroon, from the Cross River to Yola.²

The consolidation of French power on the Ivory

¹ The Gambia frontier was again modified under the Anglo-French Convention of 1904, when Yarbatenda was ceded to the French, who thus obtained a port on the river.

² The final extension of the line between the confines of that town and Lake Chad took place in 1906.

Coast and in the Kong territories was followed by the Arrangement of 1893, which provided for the demarcation of the Anglo-French frontier from the sea to 9° N. The British and French spheres lying north of this parallel were left undefined, but eventually a British protectorate was proclaimed, the Northern territories being constituted a separate district in 1897. The frontier separating the Gold Coast Colony from the Ivory Coast was extended as far as 11° N. under the Anglo-French Convention of 1898, which fixed this parallel as the northern limit of British influence in the district. A corresponding extension took place between British and German territory on the east, where the zone north of the confluence of the Volta and Dakka, declared neutral in virtue of an arrangement concluded in 1888, was divided by the two Powers concerned under the Conventions of 1899 and 1901.

Great Britain's position on the Middle Niger was less clearly defined. The Anglo-French Declaration of 1890, which designated a line drawn from Say on the Niger to Barrua on Lake Chad as the southern boundary of the French sphere of influence in the Central Sahara,¹ made no provision for the demarcation of the frontier from the ninth parallel to the Niger. Thus, the French, marching north-east from Dahomey and south-east from Timbuktu, were able to occupy the Borgu country and the territories on both banks of the Niger below Say. These encroachments culminated in 1897 in the occupation of Busa, declared a British protectorate three years previously, and in that of Niki. A period of considerable tension was put an end to by the Convention of 1898, under which Great Britain regained Busa (*cf.* p. 19).

In view of the international character of the questions at issue, it was now deemed advisable to place the territories administered by the Royal Niger Company

¹ The acknowledgment by Great Britain of a French sphere of influence over the Central Sahara was in return for French recognition of British supremacy in Zanzibar.

under the direct control of the Crown. The transfer took place on January 1, 1901, when the company, abandoning the prefix "Royal" with its political rights, became a purely trading corporation. The southern portion of its territories was amalgamated with the Niger Coast Protectorate, under the name of the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria. The northern portion, together with the other territories already recognised as under British protection, extending nominally from a line drawn slightly above 7° N. to the Anglo-French boundary, was proclaimed a protectorate under the title of Northern Nigeria.

The next few years saw British authority established *de facto* as well as *de jure* over the northern districts, and by 1903 the King's writ ran throughout Northern Nigeria. Under the Anglo-French Convention of 1904 a slight modification was effected in the northern frontier of the Protectorate, whereby France acquired a well-watered route between her Upper Nigeria and Lake Chad possessions. A further Agreement in 1906 provided the basis for delimitation of Anglo-French spheres from the Gulf of Guinea to the Niger, thus completing the demarcation of the boundary from the coast to Lake Chad. On January 1, 1914, the Protectorates of Southern and Northern Nigeria were amalgamated into a single administration called the Protectorate of Nigeria.

South Africa

The British, in succeeding the Dutch as rulers in South Africa, extended Cape Colony to the Orange River; while the Great Trek of 1836-40 opened up the districts beyond that river and the Vaal, and resulted in 1854 in the foundation of the Orange Free State Republic, and, four years later, in that of the Transvaal. The Dutch emigrants also wrested a part of Natal from the Zulus and established there a Republican Government, but this event aroused Great Britain to action, and in 1843 Natal was constituted

British territory. The region beyond the High Veld was held by the independent and warlike Matabele tribes; further west the Bechuanaland chiefs were well disposed towards Great Britain, and offered a friendly welcome to British missionaries and explorers.

In 1858 Sir George Grey's scheme for the federation of the various colonies and States of South Africa was rejected by Lord Derby's administration. The principle of expansion, however, was not lost sight of, and in 1865 a part of Kaffraria became British; two years later twelve islands off Angra Pequena were annexed, and in 1871 Basutoland was added to the Cape territory. The same year the findings of the Keate award assigned the south-eastern part of Bechuanaland¹ to Great Britain; but in 1875 a proposal on the part of the Cape Parliament to include Great Namaqualand and Damaraland within the northern frontier of the Colony² was overruled by the British Ministry. A little later, in 1878, Sir Bartle Frere was able to obtain permission to annex Walfish Bay, the best harbour in South-West Africa, together with a few miles of adjacent coast.

In 1877 the second Disraeli Cabinet authorised the annexation of the Transvaal Republic, which, fallen upon evil days, was unable to subdue the powerful Zulu tribes within its borders. From the first, hostility towards this measure was widely manifested; it culminated in 1880 in the outbreak of war and in the retrocession of the territory. The terms of peace were embodied in the Pretoria Convention of 1881. The question of boundaries arose again the following year in connection with the establishment in Bechuanaland of the Boer Republics of Stellaland and Goshenland, but at Rhodes's instigation Sir Charles Warren

¹ Afterwards known as Griqualand West.

² This arrangement would have placed the whole country lately forming German South-West Africa under British control.

was despatched to occupy Bechuanaland.¹ This action and the occupation of St. Lucia prevented the realisation of Germany's dream of a Dutch African Confederation, under German protection, uniting the German colonies of South-West and East Africa. The London Convention of 1884, which revised the Pretoria Convention, virtually abolished British suzerainty over the Transvaal; Her Majesty's Government, however, retained the right of control over the foreign relations of that State.

The good feeling between Great Britain and the Orange Free State remained unaffected by the annexation of the Transvaal in 1877; and, though federation proposals made at that time by the British Government were declined, a neutral attitude was observed throughout the subsequent war.² The long-threatened Zulu war broke out in 1879; and though, after a period of disaster, Zululand was conquered, the struggle was the beginning of a series of native risings which culminated in the Basuto war of 1880-82 and resulted in the establishment of Basutoland as a Crown Colony.

As a reward for certain services rendered during the Zulu War, the Boers received a grant of territory in Northern Zululand, in which they established the "New Republic." This State was recognised by Great Britain in 1886 and incorporated with the Transvaal two years later.

The journeys of Livingstone and others through Matabeleland and across the Zambezi served to make

¹ The region lying to the south of the Molopo River was constituted a Crown Colony under the name of British Bechuanaland, and in 1895 annexed to the Cape. The same year the transfer of the northern district, known as the Bechuanaland Protectorate, to the British South Africa Company fell through in consequence of the Jameson Raid, and the country has since remained in the hands of the Imperial Government.

² It was not until 1889 that the Orange Free State entered into an alliance with the South African Republic. This alliance, renewed in 1897, was interpreted as binding the Free State to assist the Transvaal Government in its quarrel with Great Britain in 1899.

known the character and mineral wealth of the country; and from 1883 onwards Great Britain, Germany, Portugal, and the South African Republic each sought to establish themselves in this region. The first international difficulty arose in 1887, when a map was laid before the Portuguese Cortes showing that the territories claimed by Portugal stretched from sea to sea. These claims, to which German and French assent had been obtained in 1886, were naturally disputed by Great Britain, and led to Lord Salisbury's ultimatum of 1890 (*cf.* p. 15). The Portuguese Government yielded, and Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland were secured to Great Britain. Meanwhile Rhodes, who as early as 1878 had conceived the idea of extending British influence over Central Africa, obtained official permission for Moffat, the British Resident at Bulawayo, to conclude a treaty with Lobengula, the effect of which was to place all the Matabele dominions under British protection. Thereafter events moved swiftly, and by the end of 1888 Rhodes and an influential syndicate had secured full mineral rights in Lobengula's kingdom. The foundation of the British South Africa Company followed, a Charter was applied for early in 1889, and the internal development of the country was diligently undertaken. The Company was soon faced with serious native troubles which broke out after Lobengula's death in 1894, but Rhodes's personality and influence over the native tribes terminated in 1897 what threatened to be a long struggle. The event known as the Jameson Raid, the Matabele and Mashona Rebellions, and the epidemic of rinderpest, which swept the country bare, led, in 1898, to the reconstruction of the Rhodesian Constitution.

From 1894, when the British Government handed over the administration of Swaziland to the Transvaal, the relations between Great Britain and the Boer Republics became increasingly unsatisfactory. War broke out in 1899, the struggle resulting in the following year in the annexation of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State, and the gradual establishment of

conditions which led to the grant of responsible government in 1906. This event, together with the growing up in Cape Colony of a party of South African Imperialists, gave rise to a movement towards closer union. In 1907 the High Commissioner, Lord Selborne, gave it as his considered opinion that the Afrikaner nation must shape its own destinies, a conviction shared alike by the leading men of the country and by the proletariat. Finally, a Convention, consisting of the members of the South African Governments, met to consider the question of union. Sitting from October 1908 to February 1909, the Convention succeeded in framing a Constitution for a united South Africa. With certain amendments, this was embodied in a Bill, which passed the Imperial Parliament in September 1909. Cape Colony, Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange River Colony entered the Union, which came into being on May 31, 1910. The Act also made provision for the entry of Rhodesia into the Union at a future date.¹

East Africa

The history of the development of British interests in East Africa is bound up with that of Zanzibar, where for over twenty years (1866-87) the consular representative of Great Britain, Sir John Kirk, exercised strong influence. In 1877 the Sultan Bargash offered to lease his mainland territories to Sir William Mackinnon, but the British Government refused to sanction this. Kirk, however, continued to direct the Sultan's policy, and until 1885 British influence was paramount along the East African coast. In that year Germany induced Bargash to grant a lease of the mainland territories between the Umba and Rovuma Rivers to the German East Africa Company. The actual coastal strip between these rivers was similarly leased in 1888. The International Com-

¹ A Supplemental Charter issued in 1915 rendered possible the establishment of responsible government in Southern Rhodesia.

mission which met in 1886 to determine the limits of the Sultan's dominions recognised Great Britain's claim to the district behind Mombasa, and the following year Bargash granted Mackinnon a lease of his mainland possessions north of the Umba River. In 1888 the Imperial British East Africa Company, under Mackinnon's direction, received a Royal Charter, and prepared to administer the vast territories lying between the Mombasa coast and the Victoria Nyanza. From the first, difficulties arose out of the aggressions of the German Company, whose founder, Karl Peters, by leading an expedition into Uganda, endeavoured to cut off the British Company's territory from its natural *hinterland*. Further, a German protectorate had been already established over certain coastal districts north of the Tana River. These and other questions at issue were settled under the Anglo-German Agreement of 1890, which assigned Uganda to the British, laid down the frontier from the Indian Ocean to the Belgian Congo, and, together with the Anglo-French Declaration of the same year, recognised British supremacy in Zanzibar itself.¹ A British protectorate over Zanzibar was formally proclaimed on November 4, 1890.

On the east, the acquisition in 1889 by Italy of the Somali coast from beyond Cape Gardafui to Kismayu was followed by the Protocols of 1891, which defined the Anglo-Italian spheres from the coast to the Ethiopian frontier.²

The reconstruction in 1891 of the Government of Zanzibar under Great Britain's auspices was followed in 1897 by the abolition of the legal status of slavery.

¹ Under these agreements certain restrictions were imposed on the administration of the region in virtue of the Declaration of 1862, respecting the independence of the Sultan, to which France was a party and to which Germany subsequently adhered.

² This northern region remained comparatively unexplored for several years, and in the absence of a defined frontier Abyssinian posts were pushed south to Lake Rudolf. After lengthy negotiations the boundary line was laid down in 1907.

The Imperial British East Africa Company in the meantime fell into financial straits, due chiefly to the inclusion of the Sultan's dominions within the free trade zone and the consequent abolition of dues without compensation. This state of affairs resulted in 1893 in the surrender of the company's Charter and in the purchase of its property, rights, and assets by the British Government. The formal transfer took place two years later, when the Foreign Office assumed responsibility for the administration of the territory, which now became known as the East Africa Protectorate. Thereafter the development of the region was rapid. In 1896 the Mombasa-Victoria Nyanza Railway was begun; and, an effective control being gradually established over the Masai, Somali, and other tribes, colonisation, not only of the coast-land, but also of the inland plateau, became general.

Upon the settlement of the rival claims of the British and German East Africa Companies to Uganda the British Company despatched Captain (afterwards Sir) F. Lugard to consolidate their position in the district. In this he was eventually successful, putting down revolts of the Catholic Missions and of the Mohammedans, and establishing British prestige among the natives. But before long it became apparent that the resources of the company were unequal to the strain put upon them, and Imperial support was solicited. Sir Gerald Portal was accordingly despatched to report on the situation. In 1894 British protection over Uganda was declared, which by 1901 had been extended over the countries adjoining the kingdom of Buganda proper. The native troubles ended about that time with the suppression of the Sudanese mutineers, and Sir Harry Johnston, sent out as Special Commissioner, accomplished the complete reorganization of the country, which has since continued to make steady progress in civilization and in the development of its resources.

Egypt and the Sudan

The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 and the necessity of safeguarding this essential link in the communications of the British Empire intensified the degree of British interest in Egypt. In 1875 Great Britain acquired the Khedive's shares in the Canal. Two years later, conjointly with France, she was forced to intervene in the financial affairs of the Egyptian Government, and the foundation of the Caisse de la Dette heralded the establishment of dual control, *i.e.*, a British official to superintend the revenue and a French official the expenditure of the country. In 1879 Ismail's attempt to override this arrangement resulted in his banishment from Egypt and in the appointment of his son, Tewfik, as Khedive in his stead. The system of government by dual control was thereupon established in the persons of Sir E. Baring and M. de Blignières, who administered Egypt until the Arabi revolt brought about the crisis of 1882. The danger to European life and property then became so great that Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet, urged by France, acquiesced in joint armed intervention; but early in 1882 Gambetta fell from power, the French fleet sailed away from Alexandria, and a hostile vote of the French Chamber put an end to French military intervention in Egypt. Great Britain, forced to choose between withdrawal and military action, adopted the latter course and landed troops under Sir Garnet Wolseley, who succeeded in suppressing the rebellion. The task of restoring law and order in the distracted country fell to Baring, and, though the abolition of the dual control facilitated reorganization, the difficulties in the way were many. Almost the first problem to be solved concerned the withdrawal of the British troops, to which the Cabinet was pledged. But a chain of circumstances arose in the Sudan which proved too strong for the British Government. In 1879 Gordon was succeeded as Governor of the Khedive's extra-

Egyptian territories¹ by an Egyptian Pasha of the old school, under whose rule slavery, extortion, and venality flourished anew. A Dongolese, named Mahommed Ahmed, taking advantage of the prevailing misery and discontent, proclaimed himself the long-looked-for Mahdi (guide) of Islam, and raised the flag of insurrection. Hicks Pasha and an army of 10,000 men sent to suppress the rebellion were annihilated in November 1883. Gordon was thereupon despatched to Khartum, nominally to effect the withdrawal of the Egyptian civil and military population from the parts of the Sudan still held by the Egyptian Government prior to its complete abandonment. The story of the defence and fall of Khartum need not be told here. By June 1885 the Mahdi had practically completed the destruction of Khedivial rule south of the twenty-second parallel; and the greater part of the region relapsed into a state of complete savagery.

These events indefinitely postponed the proposed evacuation of Egypt, and Gladstone's Ministry was embarked on a policy of protection. Great Britain's position in the country, however, remained anomalous, and an attempt to regularise it in 1887, by means of a Convention with the Sultan, came to nought. As regards internal affairs, the London Convention of 1885 did much to ease the financial situation, and by 1889 Baring had infused a spirit of economy and order into the administration, which helped very materially to lessen the danger of European intervention.

The *fons et origo* of the reconquest of the Sudan lay in the necessity of securing for Egypt the control of the Nile from the great lakes to the Mediterranean before France, pushing rapidly eastward, could obtain a foothold on the upper waters of that river. The way was to some extent cleared by the Anglo-German Agreement of 1890, which recognised British claims to the basin of the Upper Nile, but numerous difficulties remained to be overcome. In 1896 the die was

¹i.e., the Sudan Provinces proper, the Equatorial Provinces, Darfur, and the Red Sea and Somali coasts.

cast, and, after a brilliantly successful campaign, Kitchener hoisted the British and Egyptian flags within the walls of Khartum on September 4, 1898. Three weeks later Major Marchand's expedition, which had reached Fashoda in July, was confronted with unmistakable evidence of British reoccupation of the Sudan provinces. After a period of tension, France, under the Declaration of 1899, relinquished all claim to the valley of the Upper Nile, and, in return, received a free hand in the Lake Chad region.

An agreement with the Khedive placed the Sudan under the *condominium* of Great Britain and Egypt, and the boundaries with Eritrea and Abyssinia were laid down respectively under the Anglo-Italian Protocols of 1891¹ and the Ethiopian Treaties of 1902. In 1894 the King of the Belgians was granted the lease of certain territories in the western basin of the Upper Nile. This arrangement gave rise, however, to difficulties, which necessitated a modification; and by the Agreement of 1906 Belgian influence was restricted to the region known as the Lado enclave.²

The Anglo-French Declaration of 1899 prepared the way for the Declaration of 1904, which recognised Great Britain's supremacy in Egypt. Germany, Austria, and Italy made similar declarations,³ and by the consent of the Powers many of the restrictions which had hampered the administration of Egyptian finances were swept away. In fact, therefore, if not in substance, this international understanding recognised British occupation. The sovereignty of Turkey was acknowledged by Great Britain until the entry of that country into the European War in 1914, when the Khedive Abbas II left for Constantinople, and his uncle, Hussein Kamil, was appointed Sultan of Egypt, under formal British protection.

¹ Completed by the Declaration of 1901.

² In accordance with this arrangement, the territory was formally incorporated with the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan on June 16, 1910, shortly after King Leopold's death.

³ Lord Cromer, *Modern Egypt*, part V, chap. xlviii.

Meanwhile, in 1884, upon the withdrawal of the Khedivial garrisons from the Sudan, Great Britain established herself on the Somali coast in order to safeguard the route to India. During the next few years various native territories, including the island of Sokotra and its dependencies, were placed under British protection, and in 1888 an exchange of Notes between the British and French Governments defined the limits of their respective spheres of influence. The frontier with Italian Somaliland was determined under the Anglo-Italian Protocol of 1894, while the Anglo-Ethiopian Treaty of 1897 laid down the boundary with Abyssinia.

Until 1898 the Somaliland Protectorate was administered by the Resident at Aden, as a dependency of the Government of India. In that year it was transferred to the charge of the Foreign Office, and in 1905 to that of the Colonial Office, Sokotra remaining under the Aden administration. Meanwhile in 1899 trouble had arisen with the Mullah Mahommed Abdullah. A series of military expeditions, in which the Italian and Abyssinian authorities co-operated, caused the Mullah to accept terms in 1905, but in 1909 hostilities were renewed. In the following year Mr. Asquith's Cabinet decided against further punitive measures, and British administration was confined to the coastal regions until November 1914, when military headquarters were established at Burao.

5. THE BELGIANS IN AFRICA

The vast State which occupies the great portion of the Congo basin owes its inception to the enterprising genius of Leopold II, King of the Belgians. The discoveries of Burton, Livingstone, Rohlfs, du Chaillu, and others, stirred the imagination of Western Europe, and before Stanley had accomplished his trans-continental journey King Leopold saw the possibility of turning this enterprise to account in the creation of an African State, of which he should be

Sovereign. He therefore summoned a conference of geographical experts of all nationalities in 1876. The result was the foundation of the "International Association for the Exploration and Civilization of Africa," with committees in the principal European countries. The Belgian Committee at first considered East Africa, but Stanley's return from navigating the Congo drew attention to the possibilities for development offered by that region. The King at once organized a separate committee at Brussels, under the name of the "Comité d'Études du Haut-Congo," which shortly afterwards became the "International Association of the Congo," in its turn the forerunner of the Congo Free State. Stanley, invited to proceed thither as agent of the Association, spent the next four years in making treaties with the natives. By 1884 twenty-two stations had been founded on the Congo and its tributaries, while numerous expeditions penetrating the country lying within the great bend of the Congo were rapidly acquiring territory for the Association.

This activity did not escape the notice of the various European Powers interested in Africa. De Brazza lost no time in establishing French influence on the northern banks of the Congo and in the Shari and Ubanghi districts, and a series of disputes arose, which drew attention to the fact that the Association held no status as a sovereign power. The question came to a head early in 1884, when Lord Granville, taking advantage of claims advanced by Portugal to the Congo in virtue of its discovery centuries before, concluded a Convention with that country, recognising both banks of the mouth of the Congo as Portuguese territory, and placing the navigation of the river under the control of an Anglo-Portuguese Commission. For various reasons this treaty was never ratified, but France and Germany, believing it to be the preliminary to a British Protectorate of the Congo, joined hands, and an International Conference on African affairs was convened at Berlin. The

Conference met on November 15, 1884, under the presidency of Bismarck, and sat until February 26, 1885, when the General Act was agreed to by the representatives of Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, the Netherlands, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden and Norway, Turkey, and the United States of America.¹ The Act gave equality to all nations in trade, navigation, and transit over an area styled "The Conventional Basin of the Congo," comprising not only the actual geographical basin of the Congo and its affluents, but additional areas to the north, south, and east, the latter extending to the shores of the Indian Ocean from latitude 5° N. to the mouth of the Zambezi. It provided for freedom of navigation on the Niger (as well as the Congo), for the neutralization, under certain conditions, of the "Conventional Basin," and for the suppression of the slave trade, as well as for religious liberty and the protection of natives, missionaries, and travellers within that area. The International Association having been recognised as "a friendly government," acceded to the Act on the date of its signature.

Mention may be made at this point of the French right of pre-emption over the territory in the Congo basin. In April 1884 King Leopold, anxious to obtain recognition of the Association by its most serious rival, caused a Note to be addressed to the French Government, declaring that the Association would not cede its possessions to any Power "except in virtue of special conventions which may be concluded between France and the Association for fixing the limits of their respective actions." The Note further engaged to give France the right of preference were the Association compelled to sell its possessions. Later, in 1887, it was asserted that this right was not intended to oppose that of Belgium.

¹ The General Act was signed at Berlin, February 26, 1885. Ratifications were exchanged on April 19, 1886. It was never ratified by the United States of America.

Shortly after the Conference the Belgian Chamber regularised King Leopold's position, and the King announced the neutrality of the Congo Free State, and prepared to define its limits. The Convention of 1885 with Portugal, supplemented by that of 1891, determined the boundary of the Cabinda enclave on the north, and on the south settled the frontier on the Lower Congo.

The frontier with the French Congo was the subject of lengthy negotiations. It was eventually laid down by the Convention of 1885. A further Convention, signed in 1887, declared the fourth parallel to be the northern limit of the Congo Free State. Nevertheless, expansion northward continued, and in 1891-2 the sultanate of Bangasso, lying to the north of the Ubanghi River, was occupied, and the French frontier pushed back as far as the ninth parallel. At that time the Egyptian frontier was withdrawn to Wadi Halfa. King Leopold, therefore, not recognising British claims to the district, made haste to obtain control of the rich province of Bahr el-Ghazal, and to secure an outlet on the Nile. When it became apparent that King Leopold projected an effective occupation of these regions, Great Britain opened negotiations, which eventually resulted in the Anglo-Congolese Agreement of 1894. By this Agreement King Leopold recognised British supremacy in the Nile Valley and in the Bahr el-Ghazal Province, but in return obtained a lease of certain territory in the western basin of the Upper Nile. France instantly protested against this arrangement as restricting her advance toward the Nile, at the same time drawing attention to the occupation by the Congo Free State, already alluded to, of Bangasso and other territories north of the Ubanghi, contrary to the undertaking of 1887. A compromise was reached under the Agreement of 1894.

The Anglo-Congolese Agreement of 1894 provided also for the lease by Great Britain of a strip of territory $15\frac{1}{2}$ miles in breadth, connecting Lakes Albert

Edward and Tanganyika, which was to constitute the last link in the continuous chain of her possessions in North and South Africa. Germany, however, lodged a vigorous protest, and, Great Britain agreeing to abandon the concession, the article was shortly afterwards withdrawn from the Treaty. The same Agreement laid down the boundary between the Congo Free State and the British sphere to the north of the Zambezi. In 1899, upon France renouncing her claim to the Upper Nile territory, King Leopold again attempted to effect a permanent occupation of the province of Bahr el-Ghazal. Though compelled to withdraw by the Agreement of 1906, which annulled the 1894 lease of these regions, he was allowed to retain possession for life of the territory known as the Lado enclave. The frontier between the Belgian Congo and German East Africa, originally contemplated by the Convention of 1884, was defined under that of 1910.

Meanwhile, on November 14, 1908, in virtue of a measure passed by the Belgian Senate, the Congo Free State ceased to exist, and on the following day Belgium assumed the rights of sovereignty. French right of pre-emption over the territory in question was finally accepted by Belgium under the Franco-Belgian Agreement of the same year.

6. THE GERMANS IN AFRICA

By 1882, Bismarck had consolidated Germany's position in the European Concert, and was therefore prepared to listen to the German Colonial Society, which had been founded in that year, and to the claims of the German traders and missionaries in different parts of Africa.

South-West Africa

This was the position when Lüderitz, a Bremen merchant, concluded a treaty with the Damara whereby he acquired sovereign rights over 215 square

miles of territory in Angra Pequena Bay. The news of this exploit was received with considerable irritation in England and at the Cape, and, notwithstanding the explicit manner in which both Lord Beaconsfield's and Mr. Gladstone's Governments had disavowed all British claims to the coast of South-West Africa, Lord Granville informed Bismarck that the establishment of German sovereignty in the region in question would be considered an infringement of British rights. The British Government, however, were not prepared to undertake the administration of the Damara coast, and when in May 1884, after long delay, the Cape offered to take over the coast-line between the Orange River and Walfish Bay, it was found that in the previous month Lüderitz and his establishment had been officially declared under German protection. The sequel was inevitable, and it was scarcely necessary for Bismarck to remind Lord Granville of the importance of maintaining a good understanding with Germany on Egyptian matters. On June 22 the British Government formally acknowledged the new Protectorate, and by the end of 1885 German sovereignty was recognised by the various tribes inhabiting Damaraland and Great Nyasaland.

For a while the natives, left very much to themselves in accordance with the line of policy laid down by Bismarck, offered no opposition to the German flag, but a succession of revolts between the years 1888 and 1897 foreshadowed the Herero rising of 1903. The following year other Hottentot tribes in the south under Witbooi joined the insurgents, and for eighteen months Namaqualand was the scene of a guerilla war as savage as that which was being waged in Damaraland. At length the native resistance gradually collapsed, and the death of the rebel Hottentot chief in British territory in 1908 set a seal on the establishment of German rule throughout the Protectorate.

It remains to enumerate the treaties by which the frontiers of the new colony were settled. To the north

the German-Portuguese Declaration of 1886 defined the boundary separating Angola from German South-West Africa, while the southern and eastern boundaries with the Cape and with Bechuanaland and Rhodesia were fixed by the Anglo-German Agreement of 1890.

In addition to Damaraland, Germany sought to establish herself at three other points in South Africa—St. Lucia Bay, Pondoland, and Delagoa Bay. These attempts, however, came to nothing, as the British Government, warned by events in South-West Africa, hastened to annex the first-named territory and to declare the second under British control. German efforts to secure Delagoa Bay, though of a more sustained nature, had no practical result beyond the formation of the Netherlands South African Railway, the capital of which was largely subscribed in Germany.¹

West Africa

Meanwhile, Bismarck's attention was directed to West Africa, where German merchants had successfully established themselves in Togoland and in Cameroon. / In Togoland, where British, French, and German business houses existed side by side, misunderstandings between the rival enterprises were frequent, and a state of affairs arose which was discreditable to all the nationalities concerned. / The Senates of Hamburg and Bremen, therefore, which were directly interested in the West African coast trade, demanded the despatch of a German warship to safeguard German commercial interests in Togoland. The *Sophie* accordingly arrived off Little Popo on January 30, 1884. A few months later, while the proposals for the Berlin Conference were under discussion, Bismarck announced the despatch of

¹ German designs on Delagoa Bay were foiled by the right of pre-emption enjoyed by Great Britain over that region in virtue of an exchange of Notes effected with the Portuguese Government in 1875.

Dr. Nachtigal on the *Möwe* to the West Coast of Africa, ostensibly to report on the state of German commerce in those regions. The moment was propitious for German intervention. The German traders professed themselves in danger from the paramount native chiefs, and Dr. Nachtigal, arriving off the coast on July 2, hoisted the German flag at the principal towns in the district. Thence he hurried to the Cameroon estuary, and on July 15 persuaded King Bell to place his country under German protection. / When the British Government became aware of what had occurred they acquiesced in the arrangement; Lord Granville held the Niger Delta to be the real commercial key of the region and, moreover, was anxious for Germany's goodwill. France, on the other hand, was at first inclined to dispute Germany's claim to Togoland; but under the Protocol of 1885 she too acknowledged this Protectorate. / Bismarck's next step was to lay claim to the *hinterland* of Togoland, and so feel the way to the Middle Niger. But at this point Germany's aims ran counter to those of both her neighbours; after considerable negotiations, therefore, she agreed to recognise the eleventh parallel as the northern limit of her sphere of influence in this region. The Franco-German Convention of 1897, which determined this boundary, provided also for the demarcation of the frontier between the Protectorate and Dahomey.

On the west, the boundary between Togoland and the Gold Coast Colony, from the sea to the confluence of the Volta and Dakka Rivers, was laid down by the Anglo-German Agreement of 1890. The zone north of the confluence as far as 11° N., declared neutral in 1888, was divided by the two Powers under the Conventions of 1899 and 1901.

The extension of German influence in the interior of Cameroon was gradually accomplished, though not without considerable bloodshed. Adamawa was occupied in 1901, and the following year German troops penetrated the Bornu country and reached the shores of Lake Chad.

A series of international arrangements determined the frontiers of Germany's new possession. The boundary between the Oil Rivers Protectorate, afterwards Southern Nigeria, and Cameroon, from the Rio del Rey Creek to the rapids on the Cross River, was defined by the Anglo-German Arrangements of 1885-6. The Agreement of 1893 provided for the extension of the line as far as the confines of Yola, the section between that town and Lake Chad being settled under the Agreement of 1906. The southern and eastern frontiers were laid down by the Franco-German Protocols of 1885 and 1894, supplemented by the Convention of 1908. An important modification of this line in Germany's favour was effected by the Franco-German Congo Agreement of 1911, the *quid pro quo* of the instrument signed the same day giving the French a free hand in Morocco. Germany ceded to France the triangle between the Logone and Shari Rivers, and allowed her to lease for commercial purposes stations in German territory between the Logone and Benue Rivers and on the Upper Benue. In return Germany received large stretches of French territory, giving her access to the Congo and to the Ubanghi, while a strip of country running nearly due east from the coast was added to the southern border of Cameroon, which thus enclosed the land frontiers of the Spanish settlement of Rio Muni or Spanish Guinea. France, at the same time, renounced in Germany's favour the rights of pre-emption which she held over Spanish Guinea in virtue of the Franco-Spanish Convention of 1900.

East Africa

While these events were taking place, the African explorer, Karl Peters, dissatisfied with the attitude of the German Colonial Society, early in 1884 founded the *Gesellschaft für Deutsche Kolonisation*, and prepared to extend German rule in East Africa. Officially Peters received no encouragement, but it is worth noting that a few months later, when England was

thoroughly involved in the Sudan, Rohlfs, appointed German Consul-General at Zanzibar, left for East Africa, charged with a confidential mission, and was, moreover, directed to put pressure on the Sultan should German claims be resisted. Whatever may have been Bismarck's co-operation in the matter, Peters and his associates, Pfeil and Jühlke, proceeded with the utmost secrecy, and, travelling under false names, arrived unnoticed in Zanzibar in November 1884. Supported by the local German community, but officially discountenanced by the German Consul, they made their way inland, and within a few days concluded the first of the native treaties by which the German Colonisation Society obtained a footing in East Africa. Other treaties followed, and Peters, hastening back to Berlin, had no difficulty in persuading the Emperor to grant a charter of protection to the Society, soon to become the German East Africa Company, for "certain acquisitions of territory made by it on the South and East Coast of Africa, between the territory of the Sultan of Zanzibar and Lake Tanganyika."

Armed with these powers, the German East Africa Company acted swiftly. During 1885 no fewer than eleven expeditions penetrated into the interior, making treaties and acquiring territory, often at the expense of British rights. Their action was supported throughout by Bismarck, who, moreover, lost no opportunity of vindicating the prestige of the German flag at Zanzibar itself.

The attitude of Great Britain in the face of these advances was of necessity largely determined by conditions elsewhere. Carefully-fomented Russian intrigue in Afghanistan, coupled with Great Britain's precarious position in Egypt, sufficed to convince the British Ministry, and Lord Granville wrote in May 1885 that "Her Majesty's Government have no intention of opposing German schemes of colonisation in the neighbourhood of Zanzibar, . . . and view with favour these schemes, the realisation of which will entail the

civilisation of large tracts over which hitherto no European influence has been exercised.”¹ The Sultan meanwhile had protested directly to the German Emperor and prepared to uphold his rights. An armed conflict seemed inevitable, but the arrival of a German squadron off Zanzibar convinced Bargash of the hopelessness of his cause. He therefore agreed to grant the German company a lease of his mainland territory south of the Umba River, a British company, formed by Sir William Mackinnon, taking a lease of the territories north of that point. This result was brought about by an International Commission, which met at Zanzibar in October 1885 to determine the precise extent of the Sultan's dominions. The findings of the Commissioners were embodied in the *procès-verbal* of 1886, under which the islands of Zanzibar, Pemba, Lamu, and Mafia, together with the smaller islands dependent on them, were recognised as the Sultan's territory. On the mainland Zanzibar was held to include a strip of coast-line, 10 miles wide, from the Rovuma to the Tana River, and further north the stations of Kismayu, Brava, Merca, Mogadishu, and Warsheikh, known as the Benadir ports.

The international frontiers were subsequently laid down. The Declaration of 1886, supplemented by an exchange of Notes in 1894, defined the limits of the German and Portuguese spheres, while the boundary between German East Africa and the Belgian Congo, originally contemplated under the Convention of 1884, was finally laid down under that of 1910. The frontier with British East Africa was rendered more difficult of settlement, in that the German representative on the International Commission, referred to above, had refused to recognise the Sultan's sovereignty at any point along the coast north of the Tana River. The matter was eventually settled under the Anglo-German Agreement of 1890. The same Agreement laid down the frontier with Uganda and the Nyasaland Protectorate and Rhodesia on the south.

¹ *Africa*, No. 1 (1886) [C. 4609], p. 17.

The year 1890 witnessed the absolute cession to Germany by Bargash of the mainland territories for the sum of £200,000. Thereafter the establishment of German rule proceeded apace, though for some years a series of native risings interrupted the commercial development of the country. A more conciliatory attitude towards the natives was eventually adopted, under the administration of the Imperial Commissioner, Von Wissmann. In 1897 the territory was proclaimed a German colony, and by the end of 1898 German authority was paramount over almost all the hinterland. In 1905 serious native disturbances broke out, partly due to resentment against the restrictions imposed by the Germans in their efforts at colonization, partly, it is said, as a manifestation of sympathy with the Herero rebellion in German South-West Africa. A visit paid to the colony in 1907 by Herr Dernburg, the Imperial Colonial Secretary, resulted in the adoption of more humane methods in the treatment of the natives, while the development of the resources of the country was seriously taken in hand.

7. THE ITALIANS IN AFRICA

The unification of Italy was followed by her entry into the ranks of the Powers who control the destinies of Africa. In 1864, a tripartite commission, composed of British, French, and Italian representatives, was appointed to regulate Tunisian finances. During the next ten years Italy cherished hopes of extending protection to that region, but in 1881 she beheld her plans frustrated by the French occupation. This event caused the Italian Government to determine on a forward policy on the Red Sea littoral. Assab was declared an Italian colony in 1882; and by 1888 Italian domination in this district had attained its present coast line. These advances involved Italy with Abyssinia, whose rulers had long claimed dominion over the coastal region; various

hostile incidents occurred, but through Great Britain's good offices an arrangement was reached.

After the death of King John of Abyssinia the Italians extended their occupation inland, and in 1889 entered into a Treaty of Friendship and Commerce with King John's successor, the Emperor Menelik of Ethiopia. This Treaty, regarded by the Italians as constituting a protectorate over Abyssinia, was the first step towards a continuous sphere of influence, connecting Italy's Red Sea possessions with those on the Benadir coast. Italian Somaliland, as this region came to be called, consisted of the ports of Brava, Merca, Mogadishu, and Warsheikh, transferred to Italy by the British East Africa Company in 1889,¹ and of the Obbia territory, acquired the same year.

But this forward policy was destined to end in disaster. In 1895 the Italian Government ordered the occupation of the province of Tigre. Menelik, resenting Italian pretensions to a protectorate over Ethiopia, prepared to defend his territory, and led his armies to complete victory at Adowa in the following year. Italy's dream of an East African empire, stretching across the "Horn of Africa," was thus at an end; and the suzerainty over Abyssinia was formally abandoned under the Treaty of Peace signed in 1896.

A series of international agreements determined the limits of Italian influence in the Red Sea and on the East African coast. The boundaries with the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, British Somaliland, and British East Africa were settled by the Protocols of 1891 and by the Protocol of 1894, supplemented by the Tripartite Treaty of 1902, between Italy, Great Britain, and

¹ In 1892 the Sultan of Zanzibar agreed to lease the Benadir ports to Italy for 50 years. The district was administered first by the Filonardi Company, and later by the Benadir Company. The Italian Government assumed direct control of the administration in 1905 upon the cession by the Sultan of his sovereign rights over the country, and in virtue of Notes exchanged on January 13, 1905, granted Great Britain right of pre-emption over the territory in question. See State Papers, vol. 98, p. 129 *et seq.*

Abyssinia. The Abyssinian frontier, partly laid down by the Treaty of 1900, was finally demarcated under the Convention of 1908, while the boundary with French Somaliland was fixed by the Franco-Italian Protocols of 1900 and 1901.

The co-operation of Italy in the campaign against the Mullah Abdullah resulted in peace being declared in 1905 between the Mullah, the Italians, British, and Abyssinians and the Somali tribes. Three years later a modification of the boundary line between Italian Somaliland and Ethiopia took place, under which the Italian Protectorate was extended north of Lugh to Dolo on the Juba River.

Italian interest in the Tripolitaine had begun to assume definite shape soon after the end of the tariff war with France in 1898, and the *rapprochement* which ensued guaranteed French acquiescence in the event of Italy establishing herself in the region. It was understood, moreover, that Great Britain would agree to such an arrangement, should it arise, while no official criticism of the idea emanated from Italy's partners in the Triple Alliance. The ground was thus fully prepared, when, in 1911, a quarrel broke out between Turkey and Italy, and the latter promptly invaded Tripoli. During the autumn and winter of 1911 all the towns on the coast of Tripoli and Cyrenaica were occupied, and early in 1912 the Italian Senate ratified a decree annexing these provinces to Italy. Nevertheless, the war dragged on until the following October, when the Treaty of Ouchy¹ established Italian sovereignty in the district. This was recognised by the Powers in due course, and Italy was free to consolidate her rule in the new possession, which is now officially styled Libia Italiana.

8. THE SPANISH IN AFRICA

Spain evinced little interest in the African continent until the last quarter of the nineteenth

¹ Also called the Treaty of Lausanne.

century, when the establishment of the North-West Africa Company at Cape Juby, with agencies in the Canary Islands, awakened her to the possibility of British domination in those regions. In 1885, therefore, the Spanish Government hoisted their flag at an inlet called Rio de Oro, and declared a protectorate over the Sahara coast between Cape Blanco and Cape Bojador. The frontiers of the new Protectorate, together with those of Rio Muni (Spanish Guinea),¹ were determined under the Franco-Spanish Convention of 1900, supplemented, in the case of Rio de Oro, by the Convention of 1904.

The loss of the Spanish colonies in America and in the Pacific directed attention to Morocco, and Spain prepared to press her claim to the Rif country. Under the Franco-Spanish Declaration of 1904 she acknowledged French supremacy in Morocco, but in return received recognition of her sphere of influence on the Moroccan coast. Further, the Algeciras Act, to which she was a signatory in 1906, provided for Spanish interests in the administration of the Moorish police force for the maintenance of order in the principal coast towns. In 1910 the region between Melilla and the Muluya River was brought temporarily under Spanish control, while the military occupation of the district between Laraish, Alcazar, and Arzila took place the following year. The negotiations between France and Spain concerning the limit of their respective spheres were terminated by the Convention of 1912, which acknowledged a Spanish protectorate in the Spanish zone. The same instrument laid down the boundary between Rio de Oro and Morocco, and provided for the recognition of the Spanish establishment of Ifni and the district round Cape Nun, and determined its limits.

¹ The Spanish claim to the region between the Rivers Campo and Gabun was disputed by France, and a Joint Commission sat in Paris on several occasions from 1886 for the purpose of bringing about a satisfactory settlement of the question.

II. GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The preceding survey has shown that at the outbreak of the late war the process of partitioning the African Continent by treaty amongst different European Powers had reached a provisional conclusion. The only considerable regions as to which rival claims had not yet been settled by a formal agreement were those between the *hinterland* of Tripoli and Lake Chad, where the claims of France and Italy were in conflict; the Wadai-Darfur boundary, where a provisional arrangement was reached by Great Britain and France for the period of the war; and the Egyptian-Libyan boundary. It also shows that a certain international solidarity of interest had begun to be felt by all the European Powers in the economic development of Africa and the welfare of its native peoples—a solidarity of interest of which the Berlin and the Brussels Acts were the acknowledgment. Yet even had the war not come, the existing settlement had not the marks of permanence. The war has precipitated change. Questions of new partition have been raised by the expulsion of the Germans from their colonies, and at the same time the international idea has acquired new force through the emergence of projects for a League of Nations.

APPENDIX

I

ANGLO-GERMAN AGREEMENT¹, 1890

ARTICLE 1

IN East Africa the sphere in which the exercise of influence is reserved to Germany is bounded—

1. To the north by a line which, commencing on the coast at the north bank of the mouth of the River Umba, runs direct to Lake Jipé; passes thence along the eastern side and round the northern side of the lake, and crosses the River Lumé; after which it passes midway between the territories of Taveita and Chagga, skirts the northern base of the Kilimanjaro range, and thence is drawn direct to the point on the eastern side of Lake Victoria Nyanza which is intersected by the 1st parallel of south latitude; thence, crossing the lake on that parallel, it follows the parallel to the frontier of the Congo Free State, where it terminates.

It is, however, understood that, on the west side of the lake, the sphere does not comprise Mount Mfumbiro; if that mountain shall prove to lie to the south of the selected parallel, the line shall be deflected so as to exclude it, but shall, nevertheless, return so as to terminate at the above-named point.

2. To the south by a line which, starting on the coast at the northern limit of the Province of Mozambique, follows the course of the River Rovuma to the point of confluence of the Msinje; thence it runs westward along the parallel of that point till it reaches Lake Nyassa; thence striking northward, it follows the eastern, northern, and western shores of the lake to the northern bank of the mouth of the River Songwe; it ascends that river to the point of its intersection by the 33rd degree of east longitude; thence it follows the river to the point where it approaches most nearly the boundary of the geographical Congo Basin defined in the first article of the Act of Berlin, as marked in the map attached to the 9th Protocol of the Conference.

From that point it strikes direct to the above-named boundary; and follows it to the point of its intersection by the 32nd degree of east longitude; from which point it strikes direct to the point of confluence of the northern and southern branches of the River

¹ Sir E. Hertslet, *the Map of Africa by Treaty*, 3rd Ed., Vol. III., p. 899, 1909.

Kilambo, and thence follows that river till it enters Lake Tanganyika.

The course of the above boundary is traced in general accordance with a map of the Nyassa-Tanganyika Plateau, officially prepared for the British Government in 1889.

3. To the west by a line which, from the mouth of the River Kilambo to the 1st parallel of south latitude, is conterminous with the Congo Free State.

The sphere in which the exercise of influence is reserved to Great Britain is bounded—

1. To the south by the above-mentioned line running from the mouth of the River Umba to the point where the 1st parallel of south latitude reaches the Congo Free State. Mount Mfumbiro is included in the sphere.

2. To the north by a line commencing on the coast at the north bank of the mouth of the River Juba; thence it ascends that bank of the river and is conterminous with the territory reserved to the influence of Italy in Gallaland and Abyssinia, as far as the confines of Egypt.

3. To the west by the Congo Free State and by the western watershed of the basin of the Upper Nile.

ARTICLE 2

In order to render effective the delimitation recorded in the preceding article, Germany withdraws in favour of Great Britain her Protectorate over Witu. Great Britain engages to recognise the sovereignty of the Sultan of Witu over the territory extending from Kipini to the point opposite the Island of Kwyhoo, fixed as the boundary in 1887.

Germany also withdraws her Protectorate over the adjoining coast up to Kismayu, as well as her claims to all other territories on the mainland, to the north of the River Tana, and to the Islands of Patta and Manda.

ARTICLE 3

In South-West Africa the sphere in which the exercise of influence is reserved to Germany is bounded—

1. To the south by a line commencing at the mouth of the Orange River, and ascending the north bank of that river to the point of its intersection by the 20th degree of east longitude.

2. To the east by a line commencing at the above-named point, and following the 20th degree of east longitude to the point of its intersection by the 22nd parallel of south latitude, it runs eastward along that parallel to the point of its intersection by the 21st degree of east longitude; thence it follows that degree northward to the point of its intersection by the 18th parallel of south lati-

tude; it runs eastward along that parallel till it reaches the River Chobe; and descends the centre of the main channel of that river to its junction with the Zambesi, where it terminates.

It is understood that under this arrangement Germany shall have free access from her Protectorate to the Zambesi by a strip of territory which shall at no point be less than 20 English miles in width.

The sphere in which the exercise of influence is reserved to Great Britain is bounded to the west and north-west by the above-mentioned line. It includes Lake Ngami.

The course of the above boundary is traced in general accordance with a Map officially prepared for the British Government in 1889.

The delimitation of the southern boundary of the British territory of Walfish Bay is reserved for arbitration, unless it shall be settled by the consent of the two Powers within two years from the date of the conclusion of this Agreement. The two Powers agree that, pending such settlement, the passage of the subjects and the transit of goods of both Powers through the territory now in dispute shall be free; and the treatment of their subjects in that territory shall be in all respects equal. No dues shall be levied on goods in transit. Until a settlement shall be effected the territory shall be considered neutral.

ARTICLE 4

In West Africa—

1. The boundary between the German Protectorate of Togo and the British Gold Coast Colony commences on the coast at the marks set up after the negotiations between the Commissioners of the two countries of the 14th and 28th July, 1886; and proceeds direct northwards to the 6° 10' parallel of north latitude; thence it runs along that parallel westwards till it reaches the left bank of the River Aka; ascends the mid-channel of that river to the 6° 20' parallel of north latitude; runs along that parallel westwards to the right bank of the River Dchawe or Shavoe; follows that bank of the river till it reaches the parallel corresponding with the point of confluence of the River Deine with the Volta; it runs along that parallel westward till it reaches the Volta; from that point it ascends the left bank of the Volta till it arrives at the neutral zone established by the Agreement of 1889, which commences at the confluence of the River Dakka with the Volta.

Each Power engages to withdraw immediately after the conclusion of this Agreement all its officials and employes from territory which is assigned to the other Power by the above delimitation.

2. It having been proved to the satisfaction of the two Powers that no river exists on the Gulf of Guinea corresponding with that marked on Maps as the Rio del Rey, to which reference was made

in the Agreement of 1885, a provisional line of demarcation is adopted between the German sphere in the Cameroons and the adjoining British sphere, which, starting from the head of the Rio del Rey Creek, goes direct to the point, about 9° 8' of east longitude, marked "Rapids" in the British Admiralty Chart.

ARTICLE 5

It is agreed that no Treaty or Agreement, made by or on behalf of either Power to the north of the River Benué, shall interfere with the free passage of goods of the other Power, without payment of transit dues, to and from the shores of Lake Chad.

All Treaties made in territories intervening between the Benué and Lake Chad shall be notified by one Power to the other.

ARTICLE 6

All the lines of demarcation traced in articles 1 to 4 shall be subject to rectification by agreement between the two Powers, in accordance with local requirements.

It is specially understood that, as regards the boundaries traced in article 4, Commissioners shall meet with the least possible delay for the object of such rectification.

ARTICLE 7

The two Powers engage that neither will interfere with any sphere of influence assigned to the other by articles 1 to 4. One Power will not in the sphere of the other make acquisitions, conclude Treaties, accept sovereign rights or Protectorates, nor hinder the extension of influence of the other.

It is understood that no Companies nor individuals subject to one Power can exercise sovereign rights in a sphere assigned to the other, except with the assent of the latter.

ARTICLE 8

The two Powers engage to apply, in all the portions of their respective spheres, within the limits of the free zone defined by the Act of Berlin of 1885, to which the first five articles of that Act are applicable at the date of the present Agreement, the provisions of those articles according to which trade enjoys complete freedom; the navigation of the lakes, rivers, and canals, and of the ports on those waters is free to both flags; and no differential treatment is permitted as regards transport or coasting trade; goods, of whatever origin, are subject to no dues except those, not differential in their incidence, which may be levied to meet expenditure in the interest of trade; no transit dues are permitted; and no monopoly or favour in matters of trade can be granted.

The subjects of either Power will be at liberty to settle freely in their respective territories situated within the free trade zone.

It is specially understood that, in accordance with these provisions, the passage of goods of both Powers will be free from all hindrances and from all transit dues between Lake Nyassa and the Congo State, between Lakes Nyassa and Tanganyika, on Lake Tanganyika, and between that lake and the northern boundary of the two spheres.

ARTICLE 9

Trading and Mineral Concessions, and rights to real property, held by Companies or individuals, subjects of one Power, shall, if their validity is duly established, be recognised in the sphere of the other Power. It is understood that Concessions must be worked in accordance with local laws and regulations.

ARTICLE 10

In all territories in Africa belonging to, or under the influence of, either Power, missionaries of both countries shall have full protection. Religious toleration and freedom for all forms of divine worship and religious teaching are guaranteed.

ARTICLE 11

Great Britain engages to use all her influence to facilitate a friendly arrangement, by which the Sultan of Zanzibar shall cede absolutely to Germany his possessions on the mainland comprised in existing Concessions to the German East African Company, and their dependencies, as well as the Island of Mafia.

It is understood that His Highness will, at the same time, receive an equitable indemnity for the loss of revenue resulting from such cession.

Germany engages to recognise a Protectorate of Great Britain over the remaining dominions of the Sultan of Zanzibar, including the Islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, as well as over the dominions of the Sultan of Witu, and the adjacent territory up to Kismayu, from which her Protectorate is withdrawn. It is understood that if the cession of the German coast has not taken place before the assumption by Great Britain of the Protectorate of Zanzibar, Her Majesty's Government will, in assuming the Protectorate, accept the obligation to use all their influence with the Sultan to induce him to make that concession at the earliest possible period in consideration of an equitable indemnity.

ARTICLE 12

1. Subject to the assent of the British Parliament, the sovereignty over the Island of Heligoland, together with its dependencies, is ceded by Her Britannic Majesty to His Majesty the Emperor of Germany.

2. The German Government will allow to all persons natives of the territory thus ceded the right of opting for British nationality by means of a declaration to be made by themselves, and, in the case of children under age, by their parents or guardians, which must be sent in before the 1st January, 1892.

3. All persons natives of the territory thus ceded, and their children born before the date of the signature of the present Agreement, are free from the obligation of service in the military and naval forces of Germany.

4. Native laws and customs now existing will, as far as possible, remain undisturbed.

5. The German Government binds itself not to increase the Customs Tariff at present in force in the territory thus ceded until the 1st January, 1910.

6. All rights to property which private persons or existing Corporations have acquired in Heligoland in connection with the British Government are maintained; obligations resulting from them are transferred to His Majesty the Emperor of Germany. It is understood that the above term, "rights to property," includes the right of signalling now enjoyed by Lloyd's.

7. The rights of British fishermen with regard to anchorage in all weathers, to taking in provisions and water, to making repairs, to transhipment of goods, to the sale of fish, and to the landing and drying of nets, remain undisturbed.

Berlin, July 1, 1890.

II

ANGLO-FRENCH DECLARATIONS, 1890¹

No. 1

In conformity with the request which has been made by the Government of Her Britannic Majesty, the Government of the French Republic consents to modify the Arrangement of the 10th March, 1862, in regard to the Sultan of Zanzibar, and engages, consequently, to recognise the British Protectorate over the Islands of Zanzibar and Pemba as soon as they shall have received notification of the same.

In the territories in question the missionaries of both countries shall enjoy a complete protection. Religious toleration, and liberty for all forms of worship and religious training, shall be guaranteed.

It is understood that the establishment of this Protectorate will not affect any rights or immunities enjoyed by French citizens in the territories in question.

London, August 5, 1890.

¹ Hertslet, *op. cit.* Vol. II., p. 738.

No. 2

1. The Government of Her Britannic Majesty recognises the Protectorate of France over the Island of Madagascar, with its consequences, especially as regards the exequaturs of British Consuls and Agents, which must be applied for through the intermediary of the French Resident-General.

In Madagascar the missionaries of both countries shall enjoy complete protection. Religious toleration, and liberty for all forms of worship and religious teaching, shall be guaranteed.

It is understood that the establishment of this Protectorate will not affect any rights or immunities enjoyed by British subjects in that island.

2. The Government of Her Britannic Majesty recognises the sphere of influence of France to the south of her Mediterranean possessions, up to a line from Say on the Niger, to Barruwa on Lake Tchad, drawn in such manner as to comprise in the sphere of action of the Niger Company all that fairly belongs to the Kingdom of Sokoto; the line to be determined by the Commissioners to be appointed.

The Government of Her Britannic Majesty engages to appoint immediately two Commissioners to meet at Paris with two Commissioners appointed by the Government of the French Republic, in order to settle the details of the above-mentioned line. But it is expressly understood that even in case the labours of these Commissioners should not result in a complete agreement upon all details of the line, the Agreement between the two Governments as to the general delimitation above set forth shall, nevertheless, remain binding.

The Commissioners will also be entrusted with the task of determining the respective spheres of influence of the two countries in the region which extends to the west and to the south of the Middle and Upper Niger.

London, August 5, 1890.

III

ANGLO-ITALIAN PROTOCOLS, 1891¹

No. 1

1. THE line of demarcation in Eastern Africa between the spheres of influence respectively reserved to Great Britain and Italy shall follow from the sea the mid-channel (thalweg) of the River Juba up to latitude 6° north, Kismayu with its territory on the right bank of the river thus remaining to England. The line shall then follow the 6th parallel of north latitude up to the meridian 35° east of Greenwich, which it will follow up to the Blue Nile.

¹ Hertslet, *op. cit.*, Vol. III., p. 948.

2. If future explorations should hereafter show occasion, the line following the 6th parallel of north latitude and the 35th degree of longitude east of Greenwich, may, by common agreement, be amended in its details in accordance with the hydrographic and orographic conditions of the country.

3. In the station of Kismayu and its territory there shall be equality of treatment between the subjects and protected persons of the two countries, in all that relates to their persons, their goods, or to the exercise of any kind of commerce and industry.

Done at Rome in duplicate, the 24th March, 1891.

No. 2

1. The sphere of influence reserved to Italy is bounded, on the north and on the west, by a line drawn from Ras Kasar on the Red Sea to the point of intersection of the 17th parallel, north, with the 37th meridian, east, Greenwich. The line, having followed that meridian to 16° 30' north latitude, is drawn from that point in a straight line to Sabderat, leaving that village to the east. From that village the line is drawn southward to a point on the Gash 20 English miles above Kassala, and rejoins the Atbara at the point indicated as being a ford on the Map of Werner Munzinger "Originalkarte von Nord Abessinien und den Ländern am Mareb, Barca, und Anseba, de 1864" (Götha, Justus Perthes), and situated at 14° 52' north latitude. The line then ascends the Atbara to the confluence of the Kor Kakamot (Hahamot), whence it follows a westerly direction till it meets the Kor Lemsen, which it descends to its confluence with the Rahad. Finally, the line, having followed the Rahad for the short distance between the confluence of the Kor Lemsen and the intersection of 35° east longitude, Greenwich, identifies itself in a southerly direction with that meridian, until it meets the Blue Nile, saving ulterior amendment of details according to the hydrographic and orographic conditions of the country.

2. The Italian Government shall be at liberty, in case of being obliged to do so by the necessities of the military situation, to occupy Kassala and the adjoining country as far as the Atbara. Such occupation shall in no case extend to the north nor to the north-east of the following line:

From the right bank of the Atbara, in front of Gos Rejeb, the line is drawn in an easterly direction to the intersection of the 36th meridian, east, Greenwich; thence, turning to the south-east, it passes 3 miles to the south of the points marked Filik and Metkinab on the above-mentioned Map of Werner Munzinger, and joins the line mentioned in article 1, 25 English miles north of Sabderat, measured along the said line.

It is nevertheless agreed between the two Governments that any temporary military occupation of the additional territory

specified in this article shall not abrogate the rights of the Egyptian Government over the said territory, but that these rights shall only remain in suspense until the Egyptian Government shall be in a position to reoccupy the district in question up to the line indicated in article 1 of this Protocol, and there to maintain order and tranquillity.

3. The Italian Government engages not to construct on the Atbara, in view of irrigation, any work which might sensibly modify its flow into the Nile.

4. Italy shall have, for her subjects and protected persons, as well as for their goods, free passage without duty on the road between Metemma and Kassala, touching successively El Affareh, Doka, Suk Abu-Sin (Ghedaref), and the Atbara.

Done at Romè, in duplicate, this 15th April, 1891.

IV

ANGLO-PORTUGUESE TREATY, 1891¹

ARTICLE 1

GREAT BRITAIN agrees to recognize as within the dominion of Portugal in East Africa the territories bounded—

1. To the north by a line which follows the course of the River Rovuma from its mouth up to the confluence of the River M'Sinje, and thence westerly along the parallel of latitude of the confluence of these rivers to the shore of Lake Nyassa.

2. To the west by a line which, starting from the above-mentioned frontier on Lake Nyassa, follows the eastern shore of the lake southwards as far as the parallel of latitude 13° 30' south; thence it runs in a south-easterly direction to the eastern shore of Lake Chiuta, which it follows. Thence it runs in a direct line to the eastern shore of Lake Chilwa or Shirwa, which it follows to its south-easternmost point; thence in a direct line to the easternmost affluent of the River Ruu, and thence follows that affluent, and, subsequently, the centre of the channel of the Ruu to its confluence with the River Shiré.

From the confluence of the Ruu and Shiré the boundary will follow the centre of the channel of the latter river to a point just below Chiwanga. Thence it runs due westward until it reaches the watershed between the Zambesi and the Shiré, and follows the watershed between those rivers, and afterwards between the former river and Lake Nyassa until it reaches parallel 14° of south latitude.

From thence it runs in a south-westerly direction to the point where south latitude 15° meets the River Aroangwa or Loangwa, and follows the mid-channel of that river to its junction with the Zambesi.

¹ Hertslet, *op. cit.*, Vol. III., p. 1016.

ARTICLE 2

To the south of the Zambesi the territories within the Portuguese sphere of influence are bounded by a line which, starting from a point opposite the mouth of the River Aroangwa or Loangwa, runs directly southwards as far as the 16th parallel of south latitude, follows that parallel to its intersection with the 31st degree of longitude east of Greenwich, thence running eastward direct to the point where the River Mazoe is intersected by the 33rd degree of longitude east of Greenwich; it follows that degree southward to its intersection by the 18° 30' parallel of south latitude; thence it follows the upper part of the eastern slope of the Manica plateau southwards to the centre of the main channel of the Sabi, follows that channel to its confluence with the Lunte, whence it strikes direct to the north-eastern point of the frontier of the South African Republic, and follows the eastern frontier of the Republic, and the frontier of Swaziland to the River Maputo.

It is understood that in tracing the frontier along the slope of the plateau no territory west of longitude 32° 30' east of Greenwich shall be comprised in the Portuguese sphere, and no territory east of longitude 33° east of Greenwich shall be comprised in the British sphere. The line shall, however, if necessary, be deflected so as to leave Mutassa in the British sphere and Massi-Kessi in the Portuguese sphere.

ARTICLE 3

Great Britain engages not to make any objection to the extension of the sphere of influence of Portugal, south of Delagoa Bay, as far as a line following the parallel of the confluence of the River Pongolo with the River Maputo to the sea-coast.

ARTICLE 4

It is agreed that the western line of division separating the British from the Portuguese sphere of influence in Central Africa shall follow the centre of the channel of the Upper Zambesi, starting from the Katima Rapids up to the point where it reaches the territory of the Barotse Kingdom.

That territory shall remain within the British sphere; its limits to the westward, which will constitute the boundary between the British and Portuguese spheres of influence, being decided by a Joint Anglo-Portuguese Commission, which shall have power, in case of difference of opinion, to appoint an Umpire.

It is understood on both sides that nothing in this article shall affect the existing rights of any other State. Subject to this reservation, Great Britain will not oppose the extension of Portuguese administration outside of the limits of the Barotse country.

ARTICLE 5

Portugal agrees to recognize, as within the sphere of influence of Great Britain on the north of the Zambesi, the territories extending from the line to be settled by the Joint Commission mentioned in the preceding article to Lake Nyassa, including the islands in that lake south of parallel $11^{\circ} 30'$ south latitude, and to the territories reserved to Portugal by the line described in article 1.

ARTICLE 6

Portugal agrees to recognize, as within the sphere of influence of Great Britain to the south of the Zambesi, the territories bounded on the east and north-east by the line described in article 2.

ARTICLE 7

All the lines of demarcation traced in articles 1 to 6 shall be subject to rectification by agreement between the two Powers, in accordance with local requirements.

The two Powers agree that in the event of one of them proposing to part with any of the territories to the south of the Zambesi assigned by these articles to their respective spheres of influence, the other shall be recognised as possessing a preferential right to the territories in question, or any portion of them, upon terms similar to those proposed.

ARTICLE 8

The two Powers engage that neither will interfere with any sphere of influence assigned to the other by articles 1 to 6. One Power will not, in the sphere of the other, make acquisitions, conclude Treaties, or accept sovereign rights or Protectorates. It is understood that no Companies nor individuals subject to one Power can exercise sovereign rights in a sphere assigned to the other except with the assent of the latter.

ARTICLE 9

Commercial or mineral concessions and rights to real property possessed by Companies or individuals belonging to either Power shall, if their validity is duly proved, be recognised in the sphere of the other Power. For deciding on the validity of mineral Concessions given by the legitimate authority within 30 miles of either side of the frontier south of the Zambesi a Tribunal of Arbitration is to be named by common agreement.

It is understood that such Concessions must be worked according to local Regulations and Laws.

ARTICLE 10

In all territories in East and Central Africa belonging to or under the influence of either Power, missionaries of both countries shall have full protection. Religious toleration and freedom for all forms of Divine worship and religious teaching are guaranteed.

ARTICLE 11

The transit of goods across Portuguese territories situated between the East Coast and the British sphere shall not, for a period of twenty-five years from the ratification of this Convention, be subjected to duties in excess of 3 per cent. for imports or for exports. These dues shall in no case have a differential character, and shall not exceed the customs dues levied on the same goods in the above-mentioned territories.

Her Majesty's Government shall have the option, within five years from the date of the signature of this Agreement, to claim freedom of transit for the remainder of the period of twenty-five years on payment of a sum capitalizing the annual duties for that period at the rate of £30,000 a year.

Coin and precious metals of all descriptions shall be imported and exported to and from the British sphere free of transit duty.

It is understood that there shall be freedom for the passage of subjects and goods of both Powers across the Zambesi, and through the districts adjoining the left bank of the river situated above the confluence of the Shiré, and those adjoining the right bank of the Zambesi situated above the confluence of the River Luenha (Ruenga), without hindrance of any description and without payment of transit dues.

It is further understood that in the above-named districts each Power shall have the right, so far as may be reasonably required for the purpose of communication between territories under the influence of the same Power, to construct roads, railways, bridges, and telegraph lines across the district reserved to the other. The two Powers shall have the right of acquiring in these districts on reasonable conditions the land necessary for such objects, and shall receive all other requisite facilities. Portugal shall have the same rights in the British territory on the banks of the Shiré and in the British territory comprised between the Portuguese territory and the banks of Lake Nyassa. Any railway so constructed by one Power on the territory of the other shall be subject to local Regulations and Laws agreed upon between the two Governments, and, in case of differences of opinion, subject to arbitration as hereinafter mentioned.

The two Powers shall also be allowed facilities for constructing on the rivers within the above districts piers and landing-places for the purpose of trade and navigation.

Differences of opinion between the two Governments as to the execution of their respective obligations, incurred in accordance with the provisions of the preceding paragraph, shall be referred to the arbitration of two experts, one of whom shall be chosen on behalf of each Power. These experts shall select an Umpire, whose decision, in case of difference between the Arbitrators, shall be final. If the two experts cannot agree upon the choice of an Umpire, this Umpire shall be selected by a neutral Power to be named by the two Governments.

All materials for the construction of roads, railways, bridges, and telegraph lines shall be admitted free of charge.

ARTICLE 12

The navigation of the Zambesi and Shiré, without excepting any of their branches and outlets, shall be entirely free for the ships of all nations.

The Portuguese Government engages to permit and to facilitate transit for all persons and goods of every description over the waterways of the Zambesi, the Shiré, the Pungwe, the Busi, the Limpopo, the Sabi, and their tributaries, and also over the landways which supply means of communication where these rivers are not navigable.

ARTICLE 13

Merchant ships of the two Powers shall in the Zambesi, its branches, and outlets have equal freedom of navigation, whether with cargo or ballast, for the transportation of goods and passengers. In the exercise of this navigation the subjects and flags of both Powers shall be treated, in all circumstances, on a footing of perfect equality, not only for the direct navigation from the open sea to the inland ports of the Zambesi, and *vice versa*, but for the great and small coasting trade, and for boat trade on the course of the river. Consequently, on all the course and mouths of the Zambesi there will be no differential treatment of the subjects of the two Powers; and no exclusive privilege of navigation will be conceded by either to companies, corporations, or private persons.

The navigation of the Zambesi shall not be subject to any restriction or obligation based merely on the fact of navigation. It shall not be exposed to any obligation in regard to landing station or depôt, or for breaking bulk, or for compulsory entry into port. In all the extent of the Zambesi the ships and goods in process of transit on the river shall be submitted to no transit dues, whatever their starting-place or destination. No maritime or river toll shall be levied based on the sole fact of navigation, nor any tax on goods on board of ships. There shall only be collected taxes or duties which shall be an equivalent for services rendered

to navigation itself. The tariff of these taxes or duties shall not warrant any differential treatment.

The affluents of the Zambesi shall be in all respects subject to the same rules as the river of which they are tributaries.

The roads, paths, railways, or lateral canals which may be constructed with the special object of correcting the imperfections of the river route on certain sections of the course of the Zambesi, its affluents, branches, and outlets, shall be considered, in their quality of means of communication, as dependencies of this river, and as equally open to the traffic of both Powers. And, as on the river itself, so there shall be collected on these roads, railways, and canals only tolls calculated on the cost of construction, maintenance, and management, and on the profits due to the promoters. As regards the tariff of these tolls, strangers and the natives of the respective territories shall be treated on a footing of perfect equality.

Portugal undertakes to apply the principles of freedom of navigation enunciated in this article on so much of the waters of the Zambesi, its affluents, branches, and outlets as are or may be under her sovereignty, protection, or influence. The rules which she may establish for the safety and control of navigation shall be drawn up in a way to facilitate, as far as possible, the circulation of merchant ships.

Great Britain accepts, under the same reservations, and in identical terms, the obligations undertaken in the preceding articles in respect of so much of the waters of the Zambesi, its affluents, branches, and outlets as are or may be under her sovereignty, protection, or influence.

Any questions arising out of the provisions of this article shall be referred to a Joint Commission, and in case of disagreement to arbitration.

Another system for the administration and control of the Zambesi may be substituted for the above arrangements by common consent of the Riverain Powers.

ARTICLE 14

In the interest of both Powers, Portugal agrees to grant absolute freedom of passage between the British sphere of influence and Pungwe Bay for all merchandise of every description, and to give the necessary facilities for the improvement of the means of communication.

The Portuguese Government agrees to construct a railway between Pungwe and the British sphere. The survey of this line shall be completed within six months, and the two Governments shall agree as to the time within which the railway shall be commenced and completed. If an agreement is not arrived at the Portuguese Government will give the construction of the railway to a Company which shall be designated by a neutral Power, to be

selected by the two Governments, as being in its judgment competent to undertake the work immediately. The said Company shall have all requisite facilities for the acquisition of land, cutting timber, and free importation and supply of materials and labour.

The Portuguese Government shall either itself construct or shall procure the construction of a road from the highest navigable point of the Pungwe, or other river which may be agreed upon as more suitable for traffic, to the British sphere, and shall construct or procure the construction in Pungwe Bay and on the river of the necessary landing-places.

It is understood that no dues shall be levied on goods in transit by the river, the road, or the railway exceeding the maximum of 3 per cent. under the conditions stipulated in article 11.

ARTICLE 15

Great Britain and Portugal engage to facilitate telegraphic communication in their respective spheres.

The stipulations contained in article 14, as regards the construction of a railway from Pungwe Bay to the interior, shall be applicable in all respects to the construction of a telegraph line for communication between the coast and the British sphere south of the Zambesi. Questions as to the points of departure and termination of the line, and as to other details, if not arranged by common consent, shall be submitted to the arbitration of experts under the conditions prescribed in article 11.

Portugal engages to maintain telegraphic service between the coast and the River Ruo, which service shall be open to the use of the subjects of the two Powers without any differential treatment.

Great Britain and Portugal engage to give every facility for the connection of telegraphic lines constructed in their respective spheres.

Details in respect to such connection, and in respect to questions relating to the settlement of through tariffs and other charges, shall, if not settled by common consent, be referred to the arbitration of experts under the conditions prescribed in article 11.

ARTICLE 16

The present Convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Lisbon or London as soon as possible.

In witness whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Convention, and have affixed thereto the seal of their arms.

Done in duplicate at Lisbon, the eleventh day of June, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and ninety-one.

V

ANGLO-FRENCH CONVENTION, 1898¹

ARTICLE 1

THE frontier separating the British Colony of the Gold Coast from the French Colonies of the Ivory Coast and Sudan shall start from the northern terminal point of the frontier laid down in the Anglo-French Agreement of the 12th July, 1893, viz., the intersection of the thalweg of the Black Volta with the 9th degree of north latitude, and shall follow the thalweg of this river northward up to its intersection with the 11th degree of north latitude. From this point it shall follow this parallel of latitude eastward as far as the river shown on Map No. 1, annexed to the present Protocol, as passing immediately to the east of the villages of Zwaga (Soauga) and Zebilla (Sebilla), and it shall then follow the thalweg of the western branch of this river up stream to its intersection with the parallel of latitude passing through the village of Sapeliga. From this point the frontier shall follow the northern limits of the lands belonging to Sapeliga as far as the River Nuhau (Nouhau), and shall then follow the thalweg of this river up or down stream, as the case may be, to a point situated 2 miles (3,219 metres) eastward of the road which leads from Gambaga to Tenkrûgu (Tingourkou), viâ Bawku (Baukou). Thence it shall rejoin by a straight line the 11th degree of north latitude at the intersection of this parallel with the road which is shown on Map No. 1 as leading from Sansanné-Manga to Pama, viâ Jebigu (Djebiga).

ARTICLE 2

The frontier between the British Colony of Lagos and the French Colony of Dahomey, which was delimited on the ground by the Anglo-French Boundary Commission of 1895, and which is described in the Report signed by the Commissioners of the two nations on the 12th October, 1896, shall henceforth be recognised as the frontier separating the British and French possessions from the sea to the 9th degree of north latitude.

From the point of intersection of the River Ocpara with the 9th degree of north latitude, as determined by the said Commissioners, the frontier separating the British and French possessions shall proceed in a northerly direction, and follow a line passing west of the lands belonging to the following places, viz., Tibira, Okuta (Okouta), Boria, Tere, Gbani, Ashigere (Yassikéra), and Dekala.

From the most westerly point of the lands belonging to Dekala the frontier shall be drawn in a northerly direction so as to coincide as far as possible with the line indicated on Map 1 annexed to

¹ Hertslet, *op. cit.*, Vol. II., p. 785.

the present Protocol, and shall strike the right bank of the Niger at a point situated 10 miles (16,093 metres) up-stream from the centre of the town of Gere (Guiris) (the port of Ilo), measured as the crow flies.

ARTICLE 3

From the point specified in article 2, where the frontier separating the British and French possessions strikes the Niger, viz., a point situated on the right bank of that river, 10 miles (16,093 metres) up-stream from the centre of the town of Gere (Guiris) (the port of Ilo), the frontier shall follow a straight line drawn therefrom at right angles to the right bank as far as its intersection with the median line of the river. It shall then follow the median line of the river; up-stream, as far as its intersection with a line drawn perpendicularly to the left bank from the median line of the mouth of the depression or dry water-course, which, on Map 2 annexed to the present Protocol, is called the Dallul Mauri, and is shown thereon as being situated at a distance of about 17 miles (37,359 metres), measured as the crow flies, from a point on the left bank opposite the above-mentioned village of Gere (Guiris).

From this point of intersection the frontier shall follow this perpendicular till it meets the left bank of the river.

ARTICLE 4

To the east of the Niger the frontier separating the British and French possessions shall follow the line indicated on Map 2, which is annexed to the present Protocol.

Starting from the point on the left bank of the Niger indicated in the previous article, viz., the median line of the Dallul Mauri, the frontier shall follow this median line until it meets the circumference of a circle drawn from the centre of the town of Sokoto with a radius of 100 miles (160,932 metres). From this point it shall follow the northern arc of this circle as far as its second intersection with the 14th parallel of north latitude. From this second point of intersection it shall follow this parallel eastward for a distance of 70 miles (112,652 metres); then proceed due south until it reaches the parallel of 13° 20' north latitude, then eastward along this parallel for a distance of 250 miles (402,230 metres); then due north until it regains the 14th parallel of north latitude; then eastwards along this parallel as far as its intersection with the meridian passing 35' east of the centre of the town of Kuka, and thence this meridian southward until its intersection with the southern shore of Lake Chad.

The Government of the French Republic recognises, as falling within the British sphere, the territory to the east of the Niger, comprised within the above-mentioned line, the Anglo-German frontier, and the sea.

The Government of Her Britannic Majesty recognises, as falling within the French sphere, the northern, eastern, and southern shores of Lake Chad, which are comprised between the point of intersection of the 14th degree of north latitude, with the western shore of the lake and the point of incidence on the shore of the lake of the frontier determined by the Franco-German Convention of the 15th March, 1894.

ARTICLE 5

The frontiers set forth in the present Protocol are indicated on the annexed Maps, which are marked 1 and 2 respectively.

The two Governments undertake to appoint within a year as regards the frontiers west of the Niger, and within two years as regards the frontier east of that river, to count in each case from the date of the exchange of ratifications of the Convention which is to be concluded between them for the purpose of confirming the present Protocol, Commissioners who will be charged with delimiting on the spot the lines of demarcation between the British and French possessions, in conformity and in accordance with the spirit of the stipulations of the present Protocol.

With respect to the delimitation of the portion of the Niger in the neighbourhood of Ilo and the Dallul Mauri, referred to in article 3, the Boundary Commissioners shall, in determining on the spot the river frontier, distribute equitably between the two Contracting Powers such islands as may be found to interfere with the delimitation of the river as defined in article 3.

It is understood between the two Contracting Powers that no subsequent alteration in the position of the median line of the river shall affect the ownership of the islands assigned to each of the two Powers by the *procès-verbal* of the Commissioners, after being duly approved by the two Governments.

ARTICLE 6

The two Contracting Powers engage reciprocally to treat with consideration ("bienveillance") the native Chiefs who, having had Treaties with one of them, shall, in virtue of the present Protocol, come under the sovereignty of the other.

ARTICLE 7

Each of the two Contracting Powers undertakes not to exercise any political action in the spheres of the other, as defined by articles 1, 2, 3, and 4 of the present Protocol.

It is understood by this that each Power will not, in the spheres of the other, make territorial acquisitions, conclude Treaties, accept sovereign rights or Protectorates, nor hinder nor dispute the influence of the other.

ARTICLE 8

Her Britannic Majesty's Government will grant on lease to the Government of the French Republic, for the objects, and on the conditions specified in the form of lease annexed to the present Protocol, two pieces of ground to be selected by the Government of the French Republic in conjunction with Her Britannic Majesty's Government, one of which will be situated in a suitable spot on the right bank of the Niger between Leaba and the junction of the River Moussa (Mochi) with the former river, and the other on one of the mouths of the Niger. Each of these pieces of land shall have a river frontage not exceeding 400 metres in length, and shall form a block, the area of which shall not be less than 10 nor more than 50 hectares in extent. The exact boundaries of these pieces of land shall be shown on a plan annexed to each of the leases.

The conditions upon which the transit of merchandise shall be carried on on the Niger, its affluents, its branches and outlets, as well as between the piece of ground between Leaba and the junction of the River Moussa (Mochi) mentioned above, and the point upon the French frontier to be specified by the Government of the French Republic, will form the subject of Regulations, the details of which shall be discussed by the two Governments immediately after the signature of the present Protocol.

Her Britannic Majesty's Government undertake to give four months' notice to the French Government of any modification in the Regulations in question, in order to afford to the said French Government the opportunity of laying before the British Government any representations which it may wish to make.

ARTICLE 9

Within the limits defined on Map 2, which is annexed to the present Protocol, British subjects and British protected persons and French citizens and French protected persons, as far as regards their persons and goods, and the merchandise, the produce or the manufacture of Great Britain and France, their respective Colonies, possessions, and Protectorates, shall enjoy for thirty years from the date of the exchange of the ratification of the Convention mentioned in article 5 the same treatment in all matters of river navigation, of commerce, and of tariff and fiscal treatment and taxes of all kinds.

Subject to this condition, each of the two Contracting Powers shall be free to fix, in its own territory, and as may appear to it most convenient, the tariff and fiscal treatment and taxes of all kinds.

In case, neither of the two Contracting Powers shall have notified twelve months before the expiration of the above-mentioned term of thirty years its intention to put an end to the effects

of the present article, it shall remain in force until the expiration of one year from the day on which either of the Contracting Powers shall have denounced it.

In witness whereof, the undersigned Delegates have drawn up and signed the present Protocol.

Done at Paris, in duplicate, the 14th day of June, in the year of our Lord 1898.

VA

ANGLO-FRENCH DECLARATION OF 1899, COMPLETING
ANGLO-FRENCH CONVENTION OF 1898¹

THE 4th article of the Convention of the 14th June, 1898, shall be completed by the following provisions, which shall be considered as forming an integral part of it:—

1. Her Britannic Majesty's Government engages not to acquire either territory or political influence to the west of the line of frontier defined in the following paragraph, and the Government of the French Republic engages not to acquire either territory or political influence to the east of the same line.

2. The line of frontier shall start from the point where the boundary between the Congo Free State and French territory meets the water-parting between the watershed of the Nile and that of the Congo and its affluents. It shall follow in principle that water-parting up to its intersection with the 11th parallel of north latitude. From this point it shall be drawn as far as the 15th parallel in such manner as to separate, in principle, the Kingdom of Wadai from what constituted in 1882 the Province of Darfur; but it shall in no case be so drawn as to pass to the west beyond the 21st degree of longitude east of Greenwich (18° 40' east of Paris), or to the east beyond the 23rd degree of longitude east of Greenwich (20° 40' east of Paris).

3. It is understood, in principle, that to the north of the 15th parallel the French zone shall be limited to the north-east and east by a line of intersection of the Tropic of Cancer with the 16th degree of longitude east of Greenwich (13° 40' east of Paris), shall run thence to the south-east until it meets the 24th degree of longitude east of Greenwich (21° 40' east of Paris), and shall then follow the 24th degree until it meets, to the north of the 15th parallel of latitude, the frontier of Darfur as it shall eventually be fixed.

4. The two Governments engage to appoint Commissioners who shall be charged to delimit on the spot a frontier-line in accordance with the indications given in paragraph 2 of this Declaration. The result of their work shall be submitted for the approbation of their respective Governments.

¹ Hertslet, *op. cit.*, Vol. II., p. 796.

It is agreed that the provisions of article 9 of the Convention of the 14th June, 1898, shall apply equally to the territories situated to the south of the 14° 20' parallel of north latitude, and to the north of the 5th parallel of north latitude, between the 14° 20' meridian of longitude east of Greenwich (12th degree east of Paris) and the course of the Upper Nile.

Done at London, the 21st March, 1899.

VI

ANGLO-FRENCH CONVENTION, 1904¹

[Articles 1 to 3 relate to Newfoundland]

ARTICLE 4

His Britannic Majesty's Government, recognising that, in addition to the indemnity referred to in the preceding article, some territorial compensation is due to France in return for the surrender of her privilege in that part of the Island of Newfoundland referred to in article 2, agree with the Government of the French Republic to the provisions embodied in the following articles:—

ARTICLE 5

The present frontier between Senegambia and the English Colony of the Gambia shall be modified so as to give to France Yarbutenda and the lands and landing-places belonging to that locality.

In the event of the river not being open to maritime navigation up to that point, access shall be assured to the French Government at a point lower down on the River Gambia, which shall be recognised by mutual agreement as being accessible to merchant ships engaged in maritime navigation.

The conditions which shall govern transit on the River Gambia and its tributaries, as well as the method of access to the point that may be reserved to France in accordance with the preceding paragraph, shall form the subject of future agreement between the two Governments.

In any case, it is understood that these conditions shall be at least as favourable as those of the system instituted by application of the General Act of the African Conference of the 26th February, 1885, and of the Anglo-French Convention of the 14th June, 1898, to the English portion of the basin of the Niger.

ARTICLE 6

The group known as the Iles de Los, and situated opposite Konakry, is ceded by His Britannic Majesty to France.

¹ Hertslet, *op. cit.*, Vol. II., p. 817.

ARTICLE 7

Persons born in the territories ceded to France by articles 5 and 6 of the present Convention may retain British nationality by means of an individual declaration to that effect, to be made before the proper authorities by themselves, or, in the case of children under age, by their parents or guardians.

The period within which the declaration of option referred to in the preceding paragraph must be made shall be one year, dating from the day on which French authority shall be established over the territory in which the persons in question have been born.

Native laws and customs now existing will, as far as possible, remain undisturbed.

In the Iles de Los, for a period of thirty years from the date of exchange of the ratifications of the present Convention, British fishermen shall enjoy the same rights as French fishermen with regard to anchorage in all weathers, to taking in provisions and water, to making repairs, to transhipment of goods, to the sale of fish, and to the landing and drying of nets, provided always that they observe the conditions laid down in the French Laws and Regulations which may be in force there.

ARTICLE 8

To the east of the Niger the following line shall be substituted for the boundary fixed between the French and British possessions by the Convention of the 14th June, 1898, subject to the modifications which may result from the stipulations introduced in the sixth and seventh paragraphs of the present article.

Starting from the point on the left bank of the Niger laid down in article 3 of the Convention of the 14th June, 1898, that is to say, the median line of the Dallul Mauri, the frontier shall be drawn along this median line until it meets the circumference of a circle drawn from the town of Sokoto as a centre, with a radius of 160,932 metres (100 miles). Thence it shall follow the northern arc of this circle to a point situated 5 kilomètres south of the point of intersection of the above-mentioned arc of the circle with the route from Dosso to Matankari via Maourédé.

Thence it shall be drawn in a direct line to a point 20 kilomètres north of Konni (Birni-N'Kouni), and then in a direct line to a point 15 kilomètres south of Maradi, and thence shall be continued in a direct line to the point of intersection of the parallel of 13° 20' north latitude with a meridian passing 70 miles to the east of the second intersection of the 14th degree of north latitude and the northern arc of the above-mentioned circle.

Thence the frontier shall follow in an easterly direction the parallel of 13° 20' north latitude until it strikes the left bank of the River Komadugu Waubé (Komadougou Ouobé), the thalweg

of which it will then follow to Lake Chad. But, if before meeting this river the frontier attains a distance of 5 kilomètres from the caravan route from Zinder to Yo, through Sua Kololua (Sousa Kololoua), Adeber, and Kabi, the boundary shall then be traced at a distance of 5 kilomètres to the south of this route until it strikes the left bank of the River Komadugu Waubé (Komadougou Ouobé), it being nevertheless understood that, if the boundary thus drawn should happen to pass through a village, this village, with its lands, shall be assigned to the Government to which would fall the larger portion of the village and its lands. The boundary will then, as before, follow the thalweg of the said river to Lake Chad.

Thence it will follow the degree of latitude passing through the thalweg of the mouth of the said river up to its intersection with the meridian running 35' east of the centre of the town of Kouka, and will then follow this meridian southwards until it intersects the southern shore of Lake Chad.

It is agreed, however, that when the Commissioners of the two Governments at present engaged in delimiting the line laid down in article 4 of the Convention of the 14th June, 1898, return home and can be consulted, the two Governments will be prepared to consider any modifications of the above frontier line which may seem desirable for the purpose of determining the line of demarcation with greater accuracy. In order to avoid the inconvenience to either party which might result from the adoption of a line deviating from recognised and well-established frontiers, it is agreed that in those portions of the projected line where the frontier is not determined by the trade routes, regard shall be had to the present political divisions of the territories so that the tribes belonging to the territories of Tessaoua-Maradi and Zinder shall, as far as possible, be left to France, and those belonging to the territories of the British zone shall, as far as possible, be left to Great Britain.

It is further agreed that, on Lake Chad, the frontier line shall, if necessary, be modified so as to assure to France a communication through open water at all seasons between her possessions on the north-west and those on the south-east of the Lake, and a portion of the surface of the open waters of the Lake at least proportionate to that assigned to her by the map forming Annex 2 of the Convention of the 14th June, 1898.

In that portion of the River Komadugu which is common to both parties, the populations on the banks shall have equal rights of fishing.

ARTICLE 9

The present Convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, within eight months, or earlier if possible.

In witness whereof his Excellency the Ambassador of the French Republic at the Court of His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, and His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, duly authorised for that purpose, have signed the present Convention and have affixed thereto their seals.

Done at London, in duplicate, the 8th day of April, 1904.

VIA

ANGLO-FRENCH DECLARATION, 1904¹

ARTICLE 1

His Britannic Majesty's Government declare that they have no intention of altering the political status of Egypt.

The Government of the French Republic, for their part, declare that they will not obstruct the action of Great Britain in that country by asking that a limit of time be fixed for the British occupation or in any other manner, and that they give their assent to the draft Khedivial Decree annexed to the present arrangement,² containing the guarantees considered necessary for the protection of the interests of the Egyptian bondholders, on the condition that, after its promulgation, it cannot be modified in any way without the consent of the Powers signatory of the Convention of London of 1885.

It is agreed that the post of Director-General of Antiquities in Egypt shall continue, as in the past, to be entrusted to a French *savant*.

The French schools in Egypt shall continue to enjoy the same liberty as in the past.

ARTICLE 2

The Government of the French Republic declare that they have no intention of altering the political status of Morocco.

His Britannic Majesty's Government, for their part, recognise that it appertains to France, more particularly as a Power whose dominions are continuous for a great distance with those of Morocco, to preserve order in that country, and to provide assistance for the purpose of all administrative, economic, financial, and military reforms which it may require.

They declare that they will not obstruct the action taken by France for this purpose, provided that such action shall leave intact the rights which Great Britain, in virtue of treaties, con-

¹ Hertslet, *op. cit.*, Vol II., p. 820.

² For text of this draft Decree and correspondence relating to the Declaration, see Parliamentary Paper "Treaty Series, No. 6 (1905)," [Cd. 2384].

ventions, and usage, enjoys in Morocco, including the right of coasting trade between the ports of Morocco, enjoyed by British vessels since 1901.

ARTICLE 3

His Britannic Majesty's Government, for their part, will respect the rights which France, in virtue of treaties, conventions, and usage, enjoys in Egypt, including the right of coasting trade between Egyptian ports accorded to French vessels.

ARTICLE 4

The two Governments, being equally attached to the principle of commercial liberty both in Egypt and Morocco, declare that they will not, in those countries, countenance any inequality either in the imposition of customs duties or other taxes, or of railway transport charges.

The trade of both nations with Morocco and with Egypt shall enjoy the same treatment in transit through the French and British possessions in Africa. An agreement between the two Governments shall settle the conditions of such transit and shall determine the points of entry.

This mutual engagement shall be binding for a period of thirty years. Unless this stipulation is expressly denounced at least one year in advance, the period shall be extended for five years at a time.

Nevertheless, the Government of the French Republic reserve to themselves in Morocco, and His Britannic Majesty's Government reserve to themselves in Egypt, the right to see that the concessions for roads, railways, ports, &c., are only granted on such conditions as will maintain intact the authority of the State over these great undertakings of public interest.

ARTICLE 5

His Britannic Majesty's Government declare that they will use their influence in order that the French officials now in the Egyptian service may not be placed under conditions less advantageous than those applying to the British officials in the same service.

The Government of the French Republic, for their part, would make no objection to the application of analogous conditions to British officials now in the Moorish service.

ARTICLE 6

In order to ensure the free passage of the Suez Canal, His Britannic Majesty's Government declare that they adhere to the stipulations of the treaty of the 29th October, 1888, and that they

agree to their being put in force. The free passage of the Canal being thus guaranteed, the execution of the last sentence of paragraph 1 as well as of paragraph 2 of article 8 of that treaty will remain in abeyance.

ARTICLE 7

In order to secure the free passage of the Straits of Gibraltar, the two Governments agree not to permit the erection of any fortifications or strategic works on that portion of the coast of Morocco comprised between, but not including, Melilla and the heights which command the right bank of the River Sebou.

This condition does not, however, apply to the places at present in the occupation of Spain on the Moorish coast of the Mediterranean.

ARTICLE 8

The two Governments, inspired by their feeling of sincere friendship for Spain, take into special consideration the interests which that country derives from her geographical position and from her territorial possessions on the Moorish coast of the Mediterranean. In regard to these interests the French Government will come to an understanding with the Spanish Government.

The agreement which may be come to on the subject between France and Spain shall be communicated to His Britannic Majesty's Government.

ARTICLE 9

The two Governments agree to afford to one another their diplomatic support, in order to obtain the execution of the clauses of the present Declaration regarding Egypt and Morocco.

In witness whereof his Excellency the Ambassador of the French Republic at the Court of His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, and His Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, duly authorised for that purpose, have signed the present Declaration and have affixed thereto their seals.

Done in London, in duplicate, the 8th day of April, 1904.

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BRITISH WEST AFRICA

Introduction.—The size and importance of the British dependencies in West Africa increases with their distance from the United Kingdom. Gambia, 2,500 miles from England, is a mere strip of territory, under 4,500 miles in area, on both banks of the river from which it derives its name. Sierra Leone, 3,000 miles distant, is a peninsula and long coastal strip with a restricted back-country, having a total area of some 30,000 miles. The Gold Coast, 4,000 miles distant, with its dependencies, Ashanti and the Northern Territories, covers 80,000 square miles; and Nigeria is a miniature empire of 336,000 square miles, comprising the whole lower course of the Niger river.

Each of the four territories includes a colony and a protectorate—the Gambia colony and protectorate, the Sierra Leone colony and protectorate, the Nigeria colony and protectorate, the Gold Coast colony and the Northern Territories; the Gold Coast has also attached to it Ashanti, which is technically a colony. The essential distinction between colony and protectorate is that the former is formally part of the British dominions, having become British territory, while the latter has not this status. But in West African protectorates the British Government claims and exercises the fullest sovereign authority; and the administration is carried on in its name and not in that of native chiefs, who are servants of the

Government, not semi-sovereign princes. The chief distinction between the administration of the colonies and the protectorates is that in the former, which have been longer under British control, administration is more largely carried out by governmental officials; while in the latter, which are of more recent acquisition, the former native authorities, reorganized and controlled by the Government, carry out the work of administration. But the distinction is not absolute, for in fact parts of the colonies of Sierra Leone and Gambia are administered together with the protectorates. Natives of the protectorates are not British subjects, but they are entitled to effective protection in foreign countries as British protected persons.

The area of the colonies proper is extremely small in comparison with that of the protectorates. The colony of Gambia is only 69 square miles, that of Sierra Leone 4,000, that of the Gold Coast 24,200, and that of Nigeria 1,400. The contrast is explained by the history of British enterprise in West Africa, which, prior to the European movement of the eighties for the partition of Africa, was adverse to securing more than the minimum territorial control requisite for trading purposes, and for affording means of combating the slave-trade, of which West Africa was long the head-quarters. Even these modest aims were formally disapproved in 1865 by a strong committee of the House of Commons, which definitely reported against any extension of British sovereignty or protectorate on the coast, and upheld, as the ideal to be achieved, the gradual withdrawal of British authority from every part of the coast with the possible exception of Sierra Leone. This ideal proved, however, incapable of realization; and the activity of France after 1870, and of Germany from 1884 onwards, gradually evoked a more vigorous

policy on the part of the United Kingdom. Hampered, however, by considerations of general foreign policy, and more especially by commitments in regard to Egypt, Great Britain was unable to prevent Gambia and, in a somewhat less degree, Sierra Leone from being shut off from their natural back-countries, which are in the possession of France. Greater success was achieved in the case of the Gold Coast; and in 1898 France finally recognized British control of the lower Niger.

The activities of Germany, who in 1884 established herself to the east of the Gold Coast in Togoland, and to the east of the Niger Delta in Cameroon, were in the case of West Africa productive of less friction than those of France; and questions of frontier were adjusted without serious difficulty.¹

Since 1900 no large question of territorial relations has remained to be disposed of, though many minor points have been settled. At the outbreak of war the salient facts of the relations of the British territories to foreign Powers were that Gambia, and in a less degree Sierra Leone, were deeply interested in the commercial conditions prevailing in the adjoining French possessions, with which their economic position was closely concerned; while in all the West African territories, even including Gambia, Germany was becoming of increasing importance as a commercial factor, providing a large part of the shipping by which their products were conveyed to Europe, and affording a market which for some products was much more important than the United Kingdom itself. At the same time German firms were steadily acquiring a footing at the chief commercial centres, showing enterprise and skill in their dealings with the natives.

The European Population.—No part of the West

¹ See *The Partition of Africa*, No. 89 of this series.

African dependencies offers any prospect of becoming suitable for European settlement. Much indeed has been done, and much can still be done, to improve conditions of residence for the officials, missionaries, traders, and miners who practically constitute the European population; but there is practical unanimity that in Gambia, Sierra Leone, and the Gold Coast climatic conditions are such as to render frequent visits to England an essential condition of retaining any measure of health. The same consideration applies to the southern provinces of Nigeria, and to the larger portion of the northern provinces. It is true that on the plateaux in the north, as for instance at the minefields, Europeans and their wives have enjoyed good health for periods of as much as three years; but, apart from the grave difficulties of European settlement among a native population,¹ it is clear that this fact affords no ground for varying the belief that West Africa is essentially a country where Europeans can reside merely as passing visitors. In the whole of Nigeria the white population did not in 1915 exceed 3,000, as against some 17,000,000 natives; in the Gold Coast it was about 2,200, in Sierra Leone under 1,200, in Gambia 128; and a third of these were officials. Of the mercantile and mining population a large proportion consists of men who come to the coast for a comparatively brief period—two or three years—and do not return. Comparatively few European women take up residence on the coast; but the number was increasing at the outbreak of war, since when their passage to Africa has been difficult or impossible.

The Natives.—Despite innumerable differences in detail, there is marked similarity in essentials in the characteristics of all the negro tribes inhabiting the four territories. In none of the territories has any sub-

¹ Cd. 8172—4, p. 52.

stantial native State been erected without foreign inspiration; the Fula Empire of Sokoto, which forms an apparent exception, owed its origin to Arab enterprise, and did not, even at its height, attain a high standard of government. The Fulas are, however, much more enlightened than the negroes of the coastal districts, as are also the Hausas and the Arab inhabitants of Bornu. Even under British supervision it has been found impossible to secure effective native government without assuming full control. An interesting experiment in Lagos, under which the Alake of Abeokuta, a decidedly enlightened native ruler, was encouraged to govern his people on native lines, had to be modified in 1914 as the result of internal commotion, which could only be repressed by the use of the governmental forces.¹ As direct European administration of the territories is impracticable on grounds of finance and expediency alike, the plan is adopted of governing in the protectorates, and in some measure in the colonies also, through the medium of native institutions; and in cases where, as in the southern provinces of Nigeria, such institutions were practically non-existent, steps have been taken to establish a simple form of rule. Experience, however, shows clearly that, in the vast majority of cases, government by this method is effective in exact proportion to the activity of the British officer under whose control the administration is directed. Similarly, while with careful training native troops will fight well, their utility is bound up with the control exercised over them by their officers and the degree of confidence which they feel in them—a fact which renders the raising of large native forces a task of great difficulty. Constant supervision is also necessary to secure any degree of efficiency in the working of the native tribunals which, especially in

¹ Cd. 8172—4, pp. 44, 45.

Nigeria, are used to decide civil cases based on native law.

To continuous hard work of any kind the native evinces a strong antipathy, natural in itself, and doubtless fostered by centuries of insecurity of ownership and the degenerating effect of the prevalence of slavery. No more obvious example of this distaste, which has outlived its immediate causes, can be adduced than the difficulty of persuading the natives of the Gold Coast to take the necessary steps to protect from disease the cocoa crops which form their chief source of wealth. Climatic conditions foster the attitude of mind which seeks to maintain life by a minimum of labour in the collection of crops which grow with little attention; and this factor has seriously hampered the efforts of the British Cotton Growing Association to establish that industry on a large scale in West Africa. Normally, there is no pressure of population to encourage intensive methods of farming, and there is little or no really cheap labour.

The low mental status of the negro is most clearly reflected in his religion. Whatever germs of higher conceptions may exist in native paganism, the obvious features which it represents are the worship of natural powers embodied in material objects or fetishism, and the propitiation of the spirits of the dead, which was one at least of the motives for the human sacrifices that were prevalent in the kingdom of Ashanti before the conquest. The persistence of these beliefs is remarkable even among natives of some education, and forms a grave obstacle to the progress of civilization. Conversion to Mohammedanism is, therefore, in many cases a decided improvement in the mental outlook of the convert; and the best side of Mohammedanism, coupled with a political organization ultimately due to Arab

influence, is seen in the northern provinces of Nigeria. Here the areas which were part of the Fula Empire are infinitely superior in civilization to the territories of the pagan tribes, and remained unshaken in their loyalty to the British Empire during the early stages of the war, when German influences caused unrest among the pagan tribes of Nigeria. Outside Nigeria, however, it is doubtful whether Islam is making much progress; in the Northern Territories of the Gold Coast the movement appears to be stationary.¹

In the early days of the efforts to bring Northern Nigeria under effective control, Mohammedanism undoubtedly served as a basis of union among the Mohammedan States against the British. The political overthrow of the Mohammedan rulers and the disappearance from the scene of those chiefs who were in power before the British occupation became effective, coupled with the elaborate care taken by the Government to prevent any attack on Mohammedanism as a faith, appears to have removed for the time being this factor as an element of danger in the position of the government of Nigeria. Consistently with this policy, Mohammedan law has been permitted to continue to regulate civil relations of the people in the Mohammedan states, care being taken to secure its more efficient application.

Christianity has but little hold at present among the tribes in the protectorates; and even in the colonies its existence is somewhat feeble. It suffers in attractiveness in comparison with Mohammedanism by its insistence on monogamy, a status which is repugnant to native ideals; and native Christians show the same tendency to schism which has marked the history of the native Christian Churches of South Africa. European culture has inevitably made little

¹ Cd. 8434—4, p. 18.

progress in West Africa generally; in the capitals there is a small body of men who have assimilated in very varying degrees European ideals, but who in doing so have rendered themselves less able to interpret the aspirations of their fellow-countrymen. Education, which is partly in the hands of missionaries, Christian and Mohammedan, and partly supplied by governmental agencies, affects as yet a very small proportion of the people, few of whom appreciate its value.

In these circumstances the essential duty of the Government towards the native population lies in the maintenance of effective and just government, the protection of the natives in person and property, and the provision of gradual means of developing a higher form of civilization. The efforts of the governments of the territories are, therefore, directed to the elimination of oppression of natives by their chiefs, the prevention of the exploitation of the natives by European concession holders, and the development of the resources of the territories in such a way as to secure a fair share of the profits for the natives, the preservation to them of their rights in the land, and the improvement of the public health. These aims, of course, impose serious limitations on the sphere of governmental activity; for they not merely negative the process of compulsorily utilizing native labour for European interests—a method which has largely been adopted in the German possessions in Africa—but they are held to preclude any action by the Government to compel the natives to develop their lands by methods which they do not spontaneously adopt.

Government.—The form of government prevailing in West Africa is essentially conditioned by the needs of the native population, which must be protected from spoliation in any form. The supreme executive and

legislative authority is therefore vested by the combined effect of the British Settlements Act, 1887, and the Foreign Jurisdiction Act, 1890 (replacing older enactments to the same purpose), in the Crown, which, acting through the Secretary of State for the Colonies, appoints or approves the appointment of the executive officers, who hold office at pleasure and are thus under effective subordination to the Imperial Government. The head of the executive government and the channel of communication with the Secretary of State is the Governor, who is assisted in his conduct of government, in the case of the colonies and the Nigeria Protectorate, by an executive council consisting of the chief officials of the Government, but is not bound to act on their advice; he is required to act in all matters of importance in accordance with the directions of the Secretary of State. The legislative authority for the colonies and protectorates, other than the Nigeria Protectorate, Ashanti, and the Northern Territories of the Gold Coast, is vested in the Governor in Legislative Council, subject to the right of the Crown to disallow any legislation and to legislate by Order in Council. The composition of the Legislative Councils is by nomination; certain officials in each case are *ex officio* members, and other officials and non-officials, including natives, are nominated as members. In each case the officials are in a majority, and while, as a general rule, they are free to vote as they think fit, they can be required by the Governor to vote in accordance with the policy of the Government, so that any measure desired by the Secretary of State can, if necessary, be carried by the official vote. The Governor has a negative voice in any legislation; and thus no legislation can be passed without his approval. Election of members to the councils is impossible at present, owing to the political inexperience of the native popula-

tion; and the needs of that population are represented in the main by the officials and by those nominated members who understand their conditions. The views of the commercial community are expressed by those nominees who are drawn from their ranks. In the case of the Nigeria Protectorate, the Governor alone is vested with legislative power, since it would be impossible to subject the Mohammedan emirates to the legislative council of the colony, who could have no understanding of their needs;¹ and for similar reasons the legislative power in Ashanti and the Northern Territories of the Gold Coast is now vested in the Governor of the Gold Coast alone. There is in Gambia and Sierra Leone no such distinction of circumstances as to render legislation by the councils of the colonies inappropriate for the protectorates; and they exercise this authority accordingly.

Defence.—Since 1897 there has been created for the protection of the frontiers and the preservation of internal order a military force, the West African Frontier Force, of which regiments were before the war stationed in Nigeria and the Gold Coast, a battalion at Sierra Leone, and a company in Gambia. This force was used with success in the campaigns against Togoland and Cameroon, which in 1914–16 resulted in the surrender of those possessions. Valuable assistance was also rendered by armed Government vessels from Nigeria. On the termination of the operations in West Africa, contingents from Nigeria, the Gold Coast, and Gambia were sent to East Africa, where they fully maintained the reputation they had established in the Cameroon campaign. A large force of carriers was also recruited for service in East Africa. The only point at which Imperial forces have been stationed is Sierra Leone.

¹ Cd. 8172—4, p. 35.

Liquor Traffic.—The necessity of concerted action to repress the evils of the trade in liquor with West Africa was effectively recognized by the Brussels General Act, 1890, which laid down the principle that a minimum duty equivalent to $6\frac{1}{2}d.$ a gallon should be imposed on all spirits imported into the area between 20° N. latitude and 22° S., in which a trade in liquor already existed, while it was agreed that spirits should not be imported into, nor their manufacture permitted in, districts where religious prejudices against such a trade existed. The Niger Company, in accordance with the provisions of the Act, forbade the introduction of spirits into the territories inhabited by Mohammedan tribes which they controlled; and in all the other British territories much higher duties were imposed, with the double object of at once reducing consumption and increasing the revenue.

In 1899 a further conference was arranged at Brussels to deal with the anomalies which arose from wide differences of duty prevailing in adjoining territories belonging to different Powers; and a general agreement was arrived at, under which the minimum duty was fixed at approximately 3s. a proof gallon, with 2s. 6d. for Dahomey and Togoland, in both of which the rates had been much lower. This was increased to 3s. $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ by a further conference in 1906. In 1909 the question was raised in a somewhat acute form in the case of Southern Nigeria, in which nearly half of the revenue was derived from the duties on spirits; and on the representation of the Native Races and Liquor Traffic United Committee, a commission of inquiry was appointed by the Secretary of State for the Colonies. The report of the commission showed that many of the representations of the evil effects of liquor were exaggerated; that the trade gin and rum

were seldom deleterious in composition; that drink was rarely a cause of disease or death; that the people were in the main sober, and able to make a reasonable use of liquor; and that the prohibition of the import of spirits would merely mean the resort by the native to indigenous forms of intoxicants of a much more deleterious type, over which Government supervision would be extremely difficult. The commission also called attention to the fact that increases of duty unaccompanied by similar increases in the adjoining French and German territories would certainly lead to smuggling, which in some degree already existed in the Badagry district as the result of the difference between the British duty, raised to 5s. a gallon in 1908, and the French duty, which stood at 3s. 7½d.

It was accordingly felt by His Majesty's Government that the first step desirable was a revision of the existing agreement as to the rate of duties; but an international conference summoned in 1911 at Brussels for this end broke up without agreeing to any increase. It was then decided that the duties should be raised irrespective of foreign action; that distilling should be forbidden in the British territories; and that the introduction of distilling apparatus should be prohibited. In accordance with that policy the duty on spirits was raised in Nigeria from 5s. a gallon in 1911 to 7s. 6d. a gallon in January 1915, with 2½d. additional for every degree above 50, and 1½d. reduction for every degree below 50, with a minimum of 6s. 6d. The result was that the proportion of spirits to the whole inward trade, including specie, fell from 7·76 per cent. in 1911 to 5·51 per cent. in 1915. In December 1915 the duty on 'trade spirits' was raised to 8s. 9d. a gallon, and in November 1918 to 10s. a gallon with 3d. additional for every degree above 50, and 1½d. reduction

for every degree below 50, and a minimum of 8s. 9d. In the Gold Coast the position was complicated by an agreement with Germany, under which east of the Volta the rate had to be fixed as in Togoland; but in March 1915 the rate was raised for the whole of the colony to 7s. 6d. a gallon. This was increased to 8s. 6d. a gallon in November 1917, and to 9s. 6d. a gallon in May 1918. In Gambia, since April 1, 1915, the duty has been raised to 5s. 6d. a gallon; while in Sierra Leone the duty from July 21, 1915, has been 7s. 6d. a gallon, and the proportion of spirits to other imports, including specie, has fallen from 6·01 per cent. in 1911 to 4·47 per cent. in 1915.

International Policy.—The policy of the Imperial Government in regard to the treatment of foreign nations in its West African possessions has been to avoid any differentiation of treatment between British subjects and foreigners. It was expressed in the offer made by the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs to the German Ambassador on May 16, 1885, which was duly accepted on reciprocal terms by the German Government on June 2, 1885. Under that agreement the two Powers bound themselves not to treat differentially in their protectorates in the Gulf of Guinea foreigners or foreign goods; to apply to their protectorates the provisions of Article V (2) of the Act of Berlin of February 26, 1885, regarding the protection of the property and persons of foreigners; and to engage that there should be no differential treatment of foreigners as to settlement or access to markets. Similarly the treaty of June 14, 1898, which settled the Nigerian boundary with France, stipulates for the same treatment of British and French subjects for a period of thirty years in all matters of river navigation, commerce, tariff, and fiscal treatment and taxes generally; and apart from treaty, the same policy has

been applied to other nations. Under the encouragement thus afforded grew up the powerful German interests in West Africa. On the outbreak of the war

‘the many enemy firms in Nigeria were treated with every consideration, and were at first allowed to continue their business on condition that they neither remitted money to, nor traded with, Germany. But, when evidence was forthcoming that some among them had endeavoured to incite the natives to rebellion—though this action was indignantly repudiated by others—it was decided to deport them all, and a receiver was appointed to wind up their businesses.’¹

Their property was subsequently sold on conditions designed to prevent it falling back into the hands of its original owners or other enemy subjects.

Success of British Administration.—The general success of the system of administration adopted is seen in the attitude of the native population towards the war. In January 1915 it was found possible to send the whole of the Sierra Leone battalion of the West African Frontier Force to Cameroon, with the exception of a nucleus for recruiting purposes.

‘The dispatch of the whole battalion’, the annual report² states, ‘was only rendered possible by the settled state of the Protectorate and the law-abiding nature of both chiefs and people. The loyalty of the chiefs has been manifested not only by their co-operation with the District Commissioners in policing and maintaining peace in their various chiefdoms, but also by the readiness with which they have recruited carriers and provided rice for the Cameroons expedition.’

The annual report³ on the Gold Coast for 1915 states:

‘It is no exaggeration to say that, on the whole, the twelve months have been a period of prosperity for the native community; and for the fact that this Colony can record a year of prosperity during the great war the credit is given intelli-

¹ Cd. 8172—4, p. 44.

² Cd. 8172—14, p. 33.

³ Cd. 8172—20, p. 30.

gently and gratefully where it is due—to the navy. It is generally realized that the existence of the Colony as it is to-day depends upon its communications by sea ; and this fact perhaps more than any other has brought home to the community their dependence on the Crown and their immediate concern in the fortunes of the war. It may be too early now to attempt any summary of the effect the war has had or will have on the course of affairs in this Colony. One effect, however, is obvious : it has compelled the native to take stock of things as they are and of things as they might be ; and the result appears to have been to confirm, and to evoke expressions of, his loyalty. Generous subscriptions from all parts of the Colony to the war fund, to the Red Cross, to the Belgian Relief Fund, gifts of aeroplanes, the subscription from a chief in the interior to the Edith Cavell Fund, the enlisting of a native barrister and of clerks in the ranks of the Gold Coast Regiment for active service in the Cameroons—these and other instances, all of which in due time will have their record, are the endeavour of the native community to express articulately that it is heart and soul with the empire and that any other connexion is unthinkable.’

In Nigeria, in which the pressure of the war was most keenly felt, owing to the fighting which took place on the frontier, the Mohammedan states in the north showed enthusiastic loyalty, and contributed large sums from their treasuries for war purposes. While the more barbarous pagan tribes were in many cases restive, owing to the usual rumours that the British were about to leave the country, and that it was therefore safe to indulge in intertribal quarrels, it was ‘notable, however, that the tribes nearer to the German frontier, who could appreciate the contrast between British and German rule, gave loyal and ungrudging assistance’.¹

¹ Cd. 8434—7, p. 29.

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Sir C. P. Lucas's *Historical Geography of the British Colonies*, vol. iii, West Africa, third edition, by Professor A. B. Keith, Oxford, 1913. See also *The Partition of Africa*, No. 89 of this series ; and Nos. 91-94, relating to the separate Colonies and Protectorates.

MAPS

A map of West Africa, from Senegal to Spanish Guinea, on the scale of 1 : 6,336,000 (1903, additions 1914, boundaries corrected 1919) has been issued by the War Office (G.S.G.S. 2434).

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

Position.—The dependency of Gambia consists of a narrow strip of territory lying along both sides of the lower reaches of the River Gambia and forming an enclave in French West Africa, into which it penetrates from the Atlantic coast. Its extreme limits are the parallels $13^{\circ} 3'$ and $13^{\circ} 50'$ north, and the meridians $13^{\circ} 47'$ and $16^{\circ} 48'$ west.

Area.—The dependency is composed of (a) the Colony of Gambia, consisting of St. Mary's Island, British Kombo, Albreda, MacCarthy Island, and the territory known as the 'ceded mile', all of which were acquired by occupation, purchase, or treaty; and (b) the Protectorate, constituted in 1889. The total area, according to the map of the Boundary Commission (1904-5), is about 4,370 square miles, of which the Colony is about 69 square miles (St. Mary's Island about 4 square miles).

For administrative purposes the dependency is divided into five provinces, viz. North Bank, 860 square miles; MacCarthy Island, 600 square miles; Upper River, 1,080 square miles; South Bank, 520 square miles; and Kombo and Foni, 980 square miles. These totals do not include the area of the river channel, from Bird Island to the mouth, which is about 330 square miles.

Relation to Main Trade Routes.—The port of Bathurst, the only ocean port in Gambia, situated within the estuary about 15 miles from the sea, is some 90 miles

south of the great French military and commercial port of Dakar, and about 400 miles north of the British port of Freetown in Sierra Leone. It lies close to the ocean trade routes from Europe to the West African ports, and not very far from those which cross the South Atlantic Ocean from Europe to South Africa and to South America.

Frontiers.—On the west Gambia is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean, and on all other sides by the Senegal colony of French West Africa. The northern boundary starts from the point where the Jinnak Creek flows into the sea and follows the parallel $13^{\circ} 36'$ north to about $15^{\circ} 27'$ west longitude, whence it consists of a line, drawn 10 kilometres (6.2 miles) from the river, as far as about $13^{\circ} 52'$ west. After this the boundary follows the river to a point measured 10 kilometres in a straight line from Yabu Tenda. From this point the eastern boundary is defined by eight exactly fixed points. The southern boundary line runs, like the northern, at a distance of 10 kilometres from the river as far as $15^{\circ} 47'$ west longitude. This meridian is then followed, passing one kilometre to the eastward of Sandeng, to $13^{\circ} 10'$ north latitude, and the boundary then goes westward along this parallel to the left bank of the San Pedro or Allahi River. The bank is followed to the Atlantic Ocean, which it meets at about $13^{\circ} 3'$ north and $16^{\circ} 43'$ west.

(2) SURFACE, COAST, AND RIVER SYSTEM

Surface.—The whole of the Gambia dependency lies in the valley of the Gambia River. It is divided into two regions, the plateau in the east, and the plain in the west. Both these areas contain isolated hills and are traversed by ridges; these last being hardly apparent towards the west; and over both are scattered towns, villages, and farms.

The *plateau* is about 150 ft. above sea-level in the east, and gradually decreases in altitude until at $15^{\circ} 45'$ west longitude it merges into the plain. In the

eastern part the hills and ridges rise from 25 to 50 ft. above its level, and gradually diminish in height as it falls to the west. It is covered with grass and isolated clumps of trees, but in places there are stretches of thick forest. The hills and ridges are thinly covered with stunted trees and bamboos.

The *plain* extends to the west from longitude $15^{\circ} 45'$. It contains some ridges and spurs coming from the plateau, and some isolated hills; all of these have rounded tops and sloping sides, and are less marked than those on the plateau. At the sea-coast, on the south side of the river, there are steep cliffs, none of which are more than 75 ft. in height. The plain is covered with thick high grass, dotted with clumps of trees.

Little detailed information is available concerning the nature and extent of the *soils* of Gambia, a fact which is probably due to the existence of vast areas of unoccupied cultivable land for which there is no demand. It seems that the whole surface of the country originally consisted of a bed of laterite, composed mainly of silex, iron, and alumina, on which in many places a deep layer of alluvial soil is now superimposed. Where the soil is pure laterite it appears to be uncultivable. Considerable areas are covered by swamps and marshes, flooded during the rainy season, and these, together with certain patches of sandy, desert-like land, are also uncultivable.

Coast.—The total length of coast-line is only about 40 miles, all of which lies to the south of the mouth of the Gambia River and runs first in a south-westerly direction and then somewhat east of south. The northern part of it consists of high land, rising to 75 ft., with steep cliffs; south of Cape St. Mary it is lower, and north of the San Pedro River it is very low, with a sandy beach. There are no harbours on the coast, and the only estuary is that of the Gambia River, inside which lies Bathurst, the one seaport of the dependency.

River System.—The River Gambia, with a total length of about 1,000 miles, enters British territory near Genoto (about 280 miles from the sea), and from this point flows almost at a dead level to the sea. In the upper reaches its banks are from 10 to 50 ft. high, and usually overgrown with small trees and shrubs. West of the Buruko rocks, 4 miles above MacCarthy Island, these high banks are replaced, except at a few isolated spots (Devil Point, Muta Point and others), by low shores, which in many places merge into swamps and marshes, and are clothed with dense forests. At Kunta-ur, which is below Baboon Islands and about 150 miles from Bathurst, small mangroves appear; at Pappa Island, about 130 miles from Bathurst, and below it as far as the mouth of the river, both banks are hidden by dense mangrove swamps, in which the trees reach a height of 50 or 60 ft. There are a few breaks in these swamps, notably at Elephant Island, about 80 miles above Bathurst, and at these points landing can be effected; but elsewhere the banks are of soft mud, and are unsuitable for landings except at certain points where there are ports or villages.

The average maximum rise of the river, which occurs in September, is $\frac{3}{4}$ ft. at Ballangar, $1\frac{1}{2}$ ft. at MacCarthy Island, 18 ft. at Kunting, and 25 ft. at Yabu Tenda. The reason for the great increase in the flood-rise above MacCarthy Island is that the rocky ledge at Buruko acts as a dam and holds up the flood-waters. An authority states that the valley of the Shima-Simong, which joins the Gambia about 280 miles above Bathurst, is practically at flood-level, so that in the rainy season a connexion is made with the valley of the Cassamance River *via* Gambissara.

The average maximum rise of tide at lowest river level is $5\frac{3}{4}$ ft. at Bathurst, $4\frac{3}{4}$ ft. at Ballangar and 3 ft. at MacCarthy Island.

The river contains fresh water above Elephant Island (about 95 miles from the sea), and is reported to be tidal as far as Yabu Tenda (314 miles from the sea).

The *Vintang* (*Bintang*) Creek rises in French territory about $15^{\circ} 25'$ west, a few miles south of the British frontier. It flows almost due west for about 41 miles, and enters the River Gambia about 28 miles above Bathurst. Tidal influence is felt throughout its length in British territory, and the banks are covered with mangroves.

The *Suara Kunda Creek* (*Mini Minium Bolon*) rises in the Protectorate about $16^{\circ} 22'$ west, close to the northern frontier. It makes a wide sweep to the north into French territory and re-enters the dependency about $16^{\circ} 7'$ west. Thence it follows a very winding course, in a southerly direction, and enters the River Gambia about 37 miles above Bathurst. The banks are low and are rather thinly wooded with mangroves.

(3) CLIMATE

There is a considerable difference between the climatic conditions near the sea and those prevailing farther up the river; in both cases the records are very meagre, and regular observations appear to have been maintained only at Bathurst and, less completely, at MacCarthy Island.

The climate is better than that of the other West African dependencies. During the four months November to February, when the prevailing winds are from the north and north-west, it is dry and pleasant, with comparatively cool nights. During the three months December to February a dry easterly wind (the *harmattan*) blows generally for a period of about two weeks, or less, at a stretch; at this time the daily variations in shade temperature are said to be from 40° F. (4.4° C.) to 90° F. (32.2° C.). In April and May there is a good sea-breeze at Bathurst, but elsewhere, during the hot months March to May, the climate is very hot and vegetation dies down; but the heat is not unduly trying until about the middle of May, when the atmosphere becomes humid. The rainy season lasts for the five months June

to October, but during June and October the rains are showery and intermittent. Throughout this period the climate is extremely trying and unhealthy for Europeans, who get away from the country if possible.

The average annual rainfall at Bathurst is about 50 in. (1,272 mm.), and in eleven years it varied between 32 in. (812 mm.) and 78 in. (1,981 mm.). In the upper provinces it is said to be from 35 in. (889 mm.) to 40 in. (1,016 mm.). August is the most rainy month throughout the dependency.

The temperature at Bathurst is said to be highest in October, at the close of the rains: here the mean annual maximum shade temperature is 94° F. (34·4° C.), and the mean annual minimum is 63·5° F. (17·5° C.). At MacCarthy Island the corresponding figures are 18° F. (10° C.) higher and 5° F. (2·8° C.) lower respectively. During the five years 1911–15 the highest and lowest daily shade temperatures recorded at Bathurst were 104° F. (40° C.) and 53° F. (11·6° C.) respectively; while at MacCarthy Island during the same period the highest and lowest mean monthly shade temperatures were 115° F. (46·1° C.) and 50° F. (10° C.). To the east of MacCarthy Island both extremes are said to be more marked.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

Intermittent and remittent fevers, dysentery, and rheumatism are the most common diseases. Small-pox is prevalent; but epidemics, which used to be frequent and severe, have diminished greatly of recent years in consequence, it is said, of the extension of vaccination, to which the natives are now accustomed, and the value of which they recognize. Sleeping-sickness exists more or less throughout the dependency, but it does not appear to have been serious, at all events up to 1915–16. Yellow fever is said not to have occurred outside Bathurst for the last ten years, but there was an epidemic at that town in May 1911. Epidemics of whooping-cough and of broncho-pneumonia have been

recorded. Some attempts have been made to reduce the amount of malarial fever by anti-mosquito measures, but these do not seem to have met with marked success.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

Gambia has been invaded from time to time by different races, of whom some sections have remained in a more or less unmixed state, while others have intermarried with one another and with the aboriginal inhabitants. The result is that there are now various races speaking different languages, and many tribes with dialects of their own; the tribes number no fewer than twenty-seven in the Kombo and Foni province alone. The most important races are the Mandingo, the Fula, the Jollof, and the Jolah; of these, the first three are mainly Mohammedans, while the last are pagans.

Mandingo.—The Mandingo, an offshoot of the Niger Mandingo and the present representatives of the once-powerful Nelli race, probably migrated to the Gambia valley from the northern slopes of Futa Jallon. They are believed to have migrated across Africa not later than A. D. 1000, and are now a negroid race. Included in the term Mandingo are Soninki and many other tribes, some of which are said to be pure negroes. The Mandingo language belongs to the Sudan family and is spoken over a very large part of West Africa. The Mandingo are said to be a clean, hard-working people, somewhat unfriendly to Europeans; they pay their debts, and are honest traders, and theft is almost unknown amongst them.

Fula.—The Fula (or cow-Fula) of Gambia are a branch of the nomad Fula of the Futa Jallon highlands. They migrated towards the Senegal valley in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and in passing through the Middle Gambia valley colonized a large part of it, especially on the north bank. They are a race of Libyo-negroid origin, which had lost much of

its purity before it left Futa Jallon. Since settling in the Gambia valley they have intermarried with the Mandingo and other indigenous tribes, and thus have produced hybrids such as the Tukulor, Serawuli, and others. Their language is akin to the Hamito-Semitic, according to some authorities, while others describe it as a Bantu language. In Gambia they are semi-nomads, living in villages and cultivating field-crops during the rains, but moving with their flocks to pasture-lands when the crops have been gathered.

Jollof.—The Jollof (Wulof) occupy the north bank of the lower Gambia River, and their country extends through French territory almost to the Senegal river. Their language belongs to the Sudan family, and they are believed to be of East African origin. Intellectually and physically far finer people than the other indigenous races, they are traders as well as agriculturists, and consequently their language is widespread and is known from Senegal to Guinea.

Jolah.—The Jolah, negroes who speak a Bantu language, occupy the territory which lies south of the Gambia River along the shores of the Atlantic and extends about 100 miles inland. They are pagans, strongly hostile to the Mohammedans, and live in communal groups, each village having its own patriarch. These people are descendants of the Felup, and are a primitive unsociable race, keen farmers, hard-working and thrifty; but they are hard drinkers, consuming large quantities of palm spirit.

(6) POPULATION

A census of the population taken in 1901 showed the total number of inhabitants to be 104,000; but, admittedly, these figures are valueless, the people having 'objected strongly to their numbers being taken'. At the census of 1911 the total population was found to be just over 146,000; but it should be noted that in one province the commissioner thought the census figures

were 'a long way short of the actual numbers'. Almost all the inhabitants were Africans, and the proportion of the sexes was almost equal. The only European residents (147 in 1916) are a small number of officials, traders, and missionaries. The French slightly outnumber the British.

The population, which numbers about 34 per square mile, is almost entirely rural, the only place which can properly be called a town being the seaport of Bathurst, the head-quarters of the Government, which had a population of 7,700 at the census of 1911 and appears not to have increased since that date. Other so-called towns, whose populations vary from several thousands to a couple of hundreds, are usually little more than large villages, made up of the dwellings of peasants who live on the land: they appear to be more numerous and of larger size in those parts of the country where the cultivation is most intense.

To a great extent it seems that facility for shipping ground-nuts overseas governs the density of the rural population. Thus pressure on the soil is most intense in parts of the North Bank province where there is easy access to Suarra Kunda Creek; while in the South Bank province, which has only two river ports, much land is unoccupied. No doubt there are other governing factors of the situation, such as fertility of the soil, prevalence of agricultural and pastoral pests, energy of local tribes, and so forth; but concerning these only fragments of information are available. There is no nomadic population properly so called, except the Laibi of Baddibu, who are described as gipsies, and perhaps some other similar tribes.

In some provinces annual figures of changes in the total number of the population are given for certain years, and these are independent of the returns of births and deaths; but complete information on this point is not available, and probably does not exist. The same remarks apply to the returns of births and deaths; few records concerning them are maintained. On the whole

it seems that the population has increased of recent years, as might be expected in view of the commercial prosperity of the country and the absence of serious epidemics; but the want of statistics renders impossible any definite conclusion on this subject.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1618 First British settlement on the Gambia River.
- 1816 Founding of Bathurst.
- 1857 Retirement of the French from Gambia.
- 1888 Gambia constituted a separate colony.
- 1889 Definition of Franco-British boundaries.
- 1904 Concession to France.

(1) HISTORICAL SKETCH

The British connexion with Gambia dates from the earliest times of British enterprise in West Africa, the first British fort on the river having been established in 1618-20. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries there was a constant succession of wars and treaties between France and England affecting North-West Africa, the general effect of which was to consolidate French power on the Senegal and British power on the Gambia. On the Gambia the British stronghold was Fort James, on an island about 20 miles from the mouth of the river. Two miles lower down was a French station at Albreda. By the Treaty of Versailles in 1783, Great Britain ceded in full right to France the River Senegal and its dependencies; and France guaranteed to Great Britain "the possession of Fort James and of the River Gambia." The English were by the same treaty allowed to engage in the gum trade on the coast of Senegambia from the mouth of the River St. John to the bay and fort of Portendik inclusively. In 1786 the French came back to Albreda, and remained there until 1857. By a Convention of March 7, 1857, in return for the abandonment by the

English of their gum-trade privileges, the French gave up Albreda, and, access to the Gambia for trade purposes being reserved to them by the Convention, left the English in full control of the river.¹

The Colony of Gambia, as it stands to-day, has enjoyed a continuous existence since 1816, when merchants formerly resident at Goree and Senegal (which had been given up to France by the Treaty of Paris, 1814) established themselves on St. Mary's Island and built the town of Bathurst. In 1823 MacCarthy Island was purchased; and in 1826-27 and 1840-55 further small acquisitions of territory were secured. Together these formed the Colony proper. A vague Protectorate was also established over the tribes along both banks of the river, a definite Protectorate being constituted in 1889. The gradual advance of French influence rendered a definition of boundaries necessary; and this was arranged by Article I, together with Annex II, of the Anglo-French Convention of August 10, 1889,² which was carried into effect by commissioners in 1891 (*Procès-verbal* of June 9, 1891), the line being slightly adjusted in 1895-96 and 1898-99. The settlement of the limits of British and French authority was succeeded by measures to render the former effective; and by 1901 the territory of Foreign Kombo had been added to the Colony and the tribes in the Protectorate reduced to order.

By the Convention of London of April 8, 1904, which adjusted various outstanding questions between Great Britain and France in Newfoundland and West and Central Africa, a concession was made to France enabling her to obtain access to the River Gambia at Yabu Tenda or at some point lower down "accessible to merchant ships engaged in maritime navigation."

¹ Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, II, 716-718.

² Africa, No. 7, 1892 [C. 6701], June 1892, pp. 8, 9, 12, 13.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

The great majority of the population are pagans, but there are some 4,000 Christians, mostly in the Colony proper. About 12 per cent. of the population are Mohammedans; and the spread of Mohammedanism has been, on the whole, beneficial to the character of the people.

(2) POLITICAL

The extension of British authority was accompanied by important changes in the form of government. The Colony had in 1821 been annexed to Sierra Leone; and, though erected into a separate colony in 1843, it was re-united with Sierra Leone under one Government in 1866, as the outcome of the report of the Committee of the House of Commons in 1865 in favour of the concentration of British interests in West Africa. It became a separate colony again in 1888; and in 1893 steps were taken for the administration of the Protectorate. In 1902, as the result of experience gained in the intervening period, the protectorate form of administration was extended to the Colony proper outside St. Mary's Island.

The legislative power, for Colony and Protectorate alike, is now exercised by the Governor in Legislative Council, a body consisting usually of three officials and the same number of nominated non-officials. Administration in the Protectorate is largely conducted by native authorities under the supervision of travelling

commissioners; and native Courts, under due supervision, administer justice in cases between natives, according to native law and custom.

(3) PUBLIC EDUCATION

Education is in the hands of the different denominations—Anglican, Wesleyan, and Roman Catholic—the Anglican having one primary school, and the other two denominations three each. The Wesleyans have also a secondary school, and an industrial and technical school which gives instruction in masonry, carpentry, joinery, painting, glazing, and blacksmith's work. This school does excellent work, though but few pupils take advantage of it; it is open to all denominations. There is also a Mohammedan school, managed by a board of leading Mohammedans, with about 100 pupils, at which instruction is given in elementary English and Arabic, and the Koran is taught. The total number of children receiving instruction is only about 1,500, and parents are not ready to take advantage of the opportunities of obtaining instruction for their children. Education receives grants from the Government to defray the cost of the teachers' salaries and the maintenance of the schools.

(4) GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The following are the main features of Gambia as a British dependency. (1) It is the nearest to Great Britain of all her West African dependencies. (2) It is, with the Gold Coast, the oldest in regard to British connection of all the British West African dependencies. (3) The net outcome of past history was to effect a division between French and English, assigning the Senegal River to the French and the Gambia to the English. This division was finally recognised by the Agreement of 1857. (4) The Gambia, for the 280 miles of its course in British territory, is the best of all West African rivers and estuaries for navigable purposes, and of great value as a trade route.

When, in 1869, the then Governor-in-Chief of the West Africa Settlements strongly recommended the cession of Gambia to France, he summed up the reasons as follows :—

- (a) The expense of the garrison.
- (b) The hopelessness of extending civilisation “among the peculiar population.”
- (c) The precarious nature of the revenue, and the probability of the ultimate failure of the staple export, the ground-nut crop.
- (d) The fact that the trade was almost exclusively French, and would become more so year by year.
- (e) The uselessness of the Colony as a military post, and its lack of commercial importance to Great Britain.
- (f) The probability of frequent native troubles, and consequent expense.
- (g) The responsibility of maintaining the settlement without any result or prospective advantage.

It will be noticed that nearly all these reasons have now disappeared. Before the war the Colony did not cost anything to the Imperial Exchequer, and was financially flourishing; the Imperial garrison had for many years been withdrawn; there was no more trouble with the natives here than elsewhere; the ground-nut revenue was no more precarious than it had been; lastly, while the French took as large a share of the exports as ever, more than half the imports and more than half the carrying trade were British; and the effect of the war, as stated in the Annual Report for 1916 (p. 7), has been that

“for the first time in the last fifty years the United Kingdom received a larger proportion of the crop [ground-nuts] than was shipped to France.”

Gambia is well placed for wireless telegraphy and for a coaling station, being almost on the westernmost point of the African coast. The harbour at Bathurst

is at present unlighted; and, though there is deeper water on the bar than is the case with any other great West African river, it is stated that no ship drawing more than 28 feet can make certain of entering the harbour, even at high water; for there is not more than 33 feet of water on the bar at that time, and there is frequently a considerable swell. Much money would have to be expended to make it available for large ships.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

(a) *Roads*

There are only two main roads. The first, called Cape Road, connects Bathurst with Cape St. Mary, $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles west. It crosses Oyster Creek by Denton Bridge, a steel structure 180 ft. in length, capable of carrying a light railway. There are two other bridges, built of wood and unfit for heavy traffic. The second, a good, unmetalled road, 18 ft. wide, called Government Road, encircles the dependency from Cape St. Mary to Barra Point, on the opposite side of the estuary. Its total length, including branches, is 1,114 miles, and it serves every place of any importance in the interior.

(b) *Rivers*

The fact that this dependency is frequently spoken of as "the Gambia" at once suggests the primary importance of the river of that name in its fortunes. This stream, deeper and easier of access than any other waterway in West Africa, forms a natural highway to the interior, nearly 400 miles in length. The river is at its lowest level in April, begins to rise early in July, and continues to do so until September; it then remains steady for about fifteen days, after which it begins to fall. Ocean-going vessels drawing $12\frac{1}{2}$ ft. of water can go up as far as MacCarthy Island, 179

miles from Bathurst, in any season. Dredging work has been going on for years among the shoals near Walli Kunda and Kai-ai Island, with a view to making the channel navigable for vessels with a draught of 15 ft. or 16 ft. Beyond MacCarthy Island only small vessels can pass; for, a few miles higher, at the Buruko rocks, a ledge runs right across the river. The navigable channel here in the dry season is only 70 yds. wide, and will not take craft drawing more than 10 ft. of water. At the so-called Barra Kunda Falls, about 320 miles above Bathurst, there are rapids, with only 4 ft. of water in the dry season. In September, however, when the river is at its highest level, vessels drawing 8 ft. of water can go up for 360 miles and more.

Vintang (Bintang) Creek is navigable by vessels drawing 12 ft. of water, but its upper reaches are narrow.

Suara Kunda (Mini Minum) Creek can be ascended by craft with a draught of 16 ft. to a point about half-a-mile beyond the French frontier.

The four chief river ports, named from west to east, are Ballangar, Kunta-ur, MacCarthy, and Basse.

Ballangar, 120 miles above Bathurst, is accessible, even when the river is at its lowest, to vessels drawing 22 ft. of water, and there is a depth of not less than 18 ft. alongside its three wooden piers.

Kunta-ur, 154 miles above Bathurst, is second only to MacCarthy. Five trading firms have agencies there, and there is a considerable European settlement. There are several well-built wooden wharves, with a depth of 16 ft. alongside at low water. In two cases these are connected by tram-lines with the drying-grounds along the bank, where in a good season piles of ground-nuts, from 40 ft. to 60 ft. in height, may be seen awaiting shipment.

MacCarthy port is on the north side of the island of the same name, at Georgetown, which is a settlement of liberated slaves from the West Indies. There are five piers, one of stone and wood, the rest entirely

wooden, with a depth of over 15 ft. alongside. The branch of the river to the north of the island forms a harbour about 280 yds. wide, and vessels can come quite close to both banks from about half-a-mile below the piers to about 200 yards above.

Basse, 248 miles above Bathurst, is the principal port of the upper river, and serves a large area of cultivated land. It has three piers. At low water there is a depth of 12 ft. off the end of the central pier and 10 ft. off the other two.

Besides these, there are numerous small ports, such as Albreda, Karantaba, Tendaba, Kau-ur, Niani Maro, Kossema, Fatta Tenda, and Fatoto. They serve as collecting stations for ground-nuts, which are then sent by cutter or schooner to the larger ports, unless an occasional steamer calls and takes away an accumulation. Few "tendas," i.e., landing-places, have more than the frailest of wooden piers.

The Government has five steam vessels, two of which are very small. One of these, as a rule, makes weekly visits, in connection with the mail, but the service is very irregular. Four of the trading companies have each a steamer for trading on the upper river. There are a few iron and wood lighters at Bathurst, capable of taking a load of from 3 to 10 tons.

In view of the narrowness of the dependency, its means of communication by river and road may be said to be fairly adequate, although there is no railway. Short feeder railways or roads suitable for motor traffic, leading from the interior to the river ports, would be of value for both internal and external commercial development. At present head-carriage and pack-animals are used, and there has been some difficulty in the past in overcoming native conservatism even so far as to induce the chiefs to adopt wheeled vehicles.

(c) *Posts and Telephones*

There are two post-offices only, at Bathurst and MacCarthy Island. In 1914 a petition was presented asking for an increase in the number, but the war has

prevented any extension, and it was even necessary in 1916 temporarily to close the office at MacCarthy Island.

There is no inland telegraph system.

A limited telephone service is maintained between Government offices, some official quarters, the banks, &c.; but the system has not yet been made available for public use.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) Ports

Accommodation.—The dependency has only one seaport, Bathurst; but this is the finest harbour on the coast for 1,000 miles, and capable of almost unlimited development. Its westerly limit, about 15 miles from the river-mouth, is a line $2\frac{1}{4}$ miles in length drawn from Barra Point to Slaughter House Point, St. Mary's Island. The narrowing of the river here before it widens to the estuary produces a scour which carries the silt far out to sea, so that even at low-water there is a depth of not less than 27 ft. on the bar. The eastern boundary of the port is a line about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length, from Dog Island to Mandinari Island. Inside these limits lies the harbour, almost circular in shape, 7 or 8 miles across in each direction, and with an area of about 8 square miles available for vessels of the largest size which can cross the bar. At Dog Island there are 5 fathoms of water; but west of it the river is encumbered by shoals extending about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the right bank and about $1\frac{1}{4}$ miles from the left. There is a steel Government pier, 140 ft. long, with a T-head 215 ft. in length, alongside of which at low water there is a depth of 19 to 23 ft. There are also several wooden piers. All are connected by tramway with Bathurst town.

Nature and Volume of Trade.—In Appendix II will be found statistics as to the tonnage and nationality of vessels entered and cleared at Bathurst between 1912 and 1915, and a detailed analysis of the shipping for the last two years before the war.

(b) Shipping Lines

In normal times Messrs. Elder, Dempster & Co. provide a fortnightly mail service to Liverpool by the steamers of the African Steamship Company and the British & African Steam Navigation Company. Their new cargo service from New York to West Africa calls at Bathurst. The Woermann Line steamers, from Hamburg, used to call monthly. In the ground-nut season there is frequent communication with Dakar, 90 miles away, from which the Messageries Maritimes, the Compagnie Maritime du Congo Belge and other lines connect with Europe.

(c) Telegraphic Communication

Bathurst is in communication with England, South Africa, and South America by cable *via* St. Iago and St. Vincent, in the Cape Verde Islands. There are two other submarine cables: one to Bissao and Bulama, in Portuguese Guinea, the other to Freetown, in Sierra Leone. The first and last named cables belong to the African Direct Telegraph Company, and the other to the West African Telegraph Company.

There is a wireless telegraph station at Cape St. Mary.

(B) INDUSTRY**(1) LABOUR***(a) Supply of Labour; Emigration and Immigration*

The labour supply is nowhere in excess of the demand. Indeed, in some parts there is room for more villages. For the ground-nut season, at the beginning of the rains, strangers come in from French territory and even from Portuguese Guinea. The average number arriving in this way between 1912 and 1916 was 12,500 each year, but the annual total varies very much. In 1915, for example, 32,220 of these itinerant planters came to the colony; but owing to the low prices realised

by ground-nuts that season the number dropped to 9,315 the following year. These "strange farmers" settle in the villages, especially along the upper river, each making his own terms with the landlord who supplies him with lodging, food, and seed. The commonest arrangement is for the immigrant to do two days' work each week for his landlord, in return for which he keeps all the nuts raised on the plot allotted to him.

This immigration is, of course, purely temporary. The stranger goes back when the season ends, and may or may not return next year. Cases of permanent immigration are rare, though in a few instances whole families and villages have left French territory for Gambia.

There is not much emigration, for in the Senegal Colony taxation is higher. Some of the younger farmers go away for a time, believing that they will do more work, and therefore make more money, if they are separated from their relatives; but they usually return after no very lengthy absence.

(b) Labour Conditions

Practically the whole population are agriculturists, the men cultivating the ground-nuts and grain, while the women undertake the rice crop. There is no hired labour, each individual doing his share freely, under comfortable conditions, and getting a good return. Government for some years has made a practice of distributing seed-nuts on credit to the planters, who pay for these through their chiefs when the harvest has been sold.

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) Products of Commercial Value

The ground-nut (*Arachis hypogaea*) is the outstanding vegetable product of the dependency, and the main source of its prosperity. It is difficult to induce the native cultivator to pay much attention to any other crop; and, as has already been pointed out,

"strange farmers" in thousands come into the Colony annually to help in the planting. The crop occupies the ground during the rainy season, July to October, and is then pulled up and stacked to dry. The withered leaves are used as fodder, and the pods, each of which usually contains two kernels, are beaten out and the nuts winnowed. The oil, which is extracted in Europe, can be used in place of, or together with olive oil, and for margarine-making.

The West African oil palm (*Elaeis guineensis*) is common in the province of Kombo and Foni, and the kernels are collected for export by Jolah, who come over from the French province of Kasamanse. Ton for ton, palm-kernels are more profitable than ground-nuts: in 1916 a ton of the former brought in £21 18s., of the latter only £10 18s. However, the tree is not widely distributed, and the kernels produced are rather small.

The kola nut (*Sterculia acuminata*) occurs in small quantities.

In 1913 the Colonial Secretary for Gambia called the attention of the Liverpool Chamber of Commerce to the opening for the development of the piassava industry. *Attalea funifera*, from which this fibre is obtained, grows in abundance for miles by the river-banks and on the islands. The natives, who use the fibre for mats and baskets, and sometimes for fences, need only a minute fraction of the quantity available. The only labour required is for cutting the crop and running the machinery which prepares it for export. As long ago as about 1900 a company made experiments, but failed through bad management and lack of capital. In 1915, however, a British firm opened a factory, and the industry will probably make progress.

A good quality of rubber used to be procured from the vine *Landolphia heudelotti*; but the plant has now been almost exterminated by over-tapping. Some experiments have been made with the Cear  rubber tree (*Manihot glaziovii*) from South America, which yields rubber of good quality. It would be worth while to

go on making small plantations, for this tree, usually regarded as unsuited to West Africa, thrives under Gambian conditions.

Another crop deserving attention is cotton, which might be grown extensively. The Mandingo and Jolah cultivate cotton for making the native cloths. The Mandingo cotton is of fair quality, and might easily be improved to meet the European demand. Work in this direction would probably be more remunerative than renewal of the experiments made in the past in introducing American and Egyptian seed. As it is, the natives are increasingly neglecting cotton in favour of the ground-nut, and are relying much more upon import than in the past. In the same way, they find it easier to buy blue dye than to cultivate indigo. There is a little wild indigo.

The only kinds of timber likely to be worth exporting are rosewood (*Pterocarpus erinaceus*) and mahogany (*Khaya senegalensis*), and large trees of these species do not occur in sufficient quantity to be very profitable.

Food crops used in the past to be sacrificed to the ground-nut industry to such an extent that there was scarcely enough for local consumption. Since the outbreak of war, however, the dependency has grown more foodstuffs, and it would be well if this state of affairs could be maintained. The favourite grain is millet, of which there are at least five varieties: Basso, or Guinea corn (the large millet), Suna (the early millet), Sarnem, Findoo and Kinto. All these, especially Basso, are liable to attack by blight and insects. For this reason, maize cultivation has been begun in some parts. Maize is a quick-growing crop, for which there is plenty of suitable land; but it is not popular, because it does not produce so high a cash return as the ground-nut. Rice is grown, especially in the South Bank Province, along the river, and also on irrigated lands. In seasons of scanty rainfall it suffers from the presence of salt in the river-water, and large areas pass out of cultivation. Far bigger crops have been grown in the last few years, and much less has been imported. Cassava is largely

cultivated, and the tuberous roots are a favourite article of food. Okra (gumbo), tobacco, and indigo are planted near houses. Oranges, limes, bananas, mangoes, and tomatoes are cultivated in Niumi, near Bathurst, and elsewhere where a market can be found for them; but, so far as is known, the natives do not grow them to any extent for their own use.

The native bee, a small form of *Apis mellifera*, is found in a wild state in rock cavities and hollow trees, and the Mandingo hive the wild swarms. Beeswax of a good quality is produced, and sold to the Bathurst merchants to be refined for export.

There are very large herds of cattle in most parts; but the owners object to counting them, so that it is hard to estimate their numbers. They have certainly increased greatly in recent years; for complaints are made in various districts that there is not sufficient grazing. The animals resemble the Channel Islands breeds, but stand higher in the leg. Ayrshire bulls were imported with a view to improving the breed, but all the animals died. Hides might be a very valuable article of export, and did in 1913 bring in more than £18,000. The natives, however, prize their herds more as an evidence of wealth than as a means of increasing it, and are reluctant to turn the cattle to commercial uses. Sheep and goats are kept in small numbers in most districts. Nearly every villager has a few fowls; but these were never of much value, and of late years their number has been very much diminished by fowl-diphtheria. Ponies are fairly numerous away from the river and creeks, where the tsetse fly would soon exterminate them. Donkeys are preferred for transport, as they are less susceptible to the attack of that insect.

(b) *Methods of Cultivation*

The people of Gambia are, on the whole, careful cultivators. The main difficulties are the sparseness of population and the unwillingness of farmers to adopt labour-saving devices. In 1908 an agricultural school and farm, subsidised by Government and

managed by the Roman Catholic Mission, was opened at Abuko, near Bathurst, with a view to teaching good methods. The chief farm implement among the Jolah is a hand-plough, consisting of a flat blade attached to a pole, and pushed in front of the operator. The Mandingo and Jollof use a large, wooden-bladed iron-shod hoe for making their ridges. Efforts are being made to popularise the simple form of plough, drawn by oxen, which is used in the Canary Islands.

In some parts of the North Bank and South Bank Provinces the fertility of the soil is entirely dependent upon cattle manure, whereas in the regions of alluvial soil, such as Kombo, artificial fertilization is not needed.

Irrigation of rice-lands is satisfactorily carried out on a small scale, and ought to be greatly extended. The cost of large irrigation works, however, would be so high that at present they cannot be undertaken.

(c) *Land Tenure*

Crown lands are granted in small parcels, limited in ordinary circumstances to 6,000 square yards, and the rent varies from £1 to £4 per 1,000 square yards, according to situation. Leaseholds may be acquired; but no leases are issued in the first instance for more than 21 years. In the Protectorate the land is held by the native community, but, so long as each individual cultivates his share properly, in practice it belongs to him and his heirs.

(3) FISHERIES

The lower reaches of the Gambia River abound in fish, and large quantities are taken in nets, dried, and sent up-country each season.

(4) MINERALS

Iron, ochres, and china-clay occur in the dependency. Some specimens of the iron ores were sent to the Imperial Institute in 1911, the three richest proving to contain respectively 37·61 per cent, 34·62 per cent, and 32·74 per cent of metallic iron. Large amounts

of silica and other impurities, however, were present. Possibly richer ores exist; but it is unlikely that any export trade in iron could be established in the near future. The extraction of the ore and its transport to a smelting centre would not be difficult, but local labour is not available for mining and handling it, and the cost of importing foreign labour would be high.

The same objection would probably apply to the working of the ochres and china-clay, but there is not yet sufficient information available as to their composition and value to make a decision on this point possible.

(5) MANUFACTURES

There are not many native manufactures, and none is exported. A good deal of boat-building and repairing goes on, and most of the cutters used in the ground-nut trade are built in the colony. Native cloth, of a quality which compares favourably with imported Manchester goods, is woven in strips on primitive looms. In the Upper River Province pottery is made. Goatskins are tanned, stained with red and black inks bought from the European merchants, and made by *korankas* or leather-workers into highly decorative saddles, slippers, bags, sandals, &c. Ironworking is not unknown, but a blacksmith is regarded as a rare and wonderful person. Beads and dyed grass ornaments are made, and crude vegetable oils are extracted.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

(a) *Principal Branches of Trade*

A large and increasing number of Syrians and other small traders carry on retail business in Bathurst and the Protectorate. Kru people from Sierra Leone travel through the Gambia hawking imitation silver jewellery and other wares.

In 1917 a Chamber of Commerce was formed at Bathurst to promote and protect British trade, settle disputes by arbitration. &c.

(b) Foreign Interests

There are eight French firms trading in Gambia. Several of these, as, for example, Maurel Bros., Maurel & Prom, the Compagnie française de l'Afrique occidentale, and L. Vézia & Co., have offices at Marseilles, the port to which in normal times most of the ground-nut crop is shipped.

*(2) FOREIGN**(a) Exports*

Quantities and Values.—The total value of exports, excluding specie, between 1912 and 1916 was as follows :—

| | | | | | £ |
|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|---------|
| 1912 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 538,593 |
| 1913 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 662,406 |
| 1914 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 693,658 |
| 1915 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 430,617 |
| 1916 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 542,843 |

In Appendix III will be found a return of the quantities and values of the three chief articles—ground-nuts, hides, and palm-kernels—which make up these totals. Of these, ground-nuts remain by far the most important item. In 1912 they represented 93 per cent of the total value of commercial exports; and in 1916 the percentage of value remained the same, though, owing to temporary reasons, the quantity of nuts shipped was much smaller. The figures for 1916 show a startling rise in the export of palm-kernels, which more than doubled both in quantity and in value. This increase may be maintained and extended, and, if so, will be a safeguard against the danger of trusting to the ground-nut crop alone as the staple of the prosperity of the dependency. Hides in the past usually took second place in value, but in 1916 fetched only £10,019, as against the £14,671 produced by palm-kernels.

Rubber and ivory used to appear among the exports; but, after passing through a long period of decline,

have now become almost negligible. The ivory shipped in 1916 was valued at £40, and the rubber at £23.

Countries of Destination.—In the past commercial history of the dependency, France and the French possessions supplied the chief market for its exports, Germany was playing an increasing part, and the United Kingdom occupied a very inconspicuous position. In 1913, for example, 59·10 per cent of the total exports went to France and her possessions, 24·56 per cent to Germany, and only 6·72 per cent to Great Britain and British possessions. In 1914 the figures were 79·34 per cent, 6·80 per cent, and 9·92 per cent respectively.

The war has made a considerable change. In 1915 the British share rose to 39·45 per cent, the French fell to 48·60 per cent, and Spain and Denmark became, for the first time, important customers. Several British firms have now set up nut-crushing machinery, and ground-nuts have therefore an extending market in this country. In 1916, for the first time for half-a-century, the United Kingdom took a larger proportion of the Gambia crop than any other country, receiving 22,374 tons of nuts as against 19,313 tons taken by France. The percentage of the total exports was 53 per cent for the United Kingdom, and 35 per cent for France.

(b) Imports

Quantities and Values.—The total value of imports, excluding specie, between 1912 and 1916 was as follows :—

| | | | | | £ |
|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|---------|
| 1912 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 471,630 |
| 1913 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 619,294 |
| 1914 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 388,339 |
| 1915 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 302,345 |
| 1916 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 478,805 |

The chief commercial imports are cotton goods, hardware, rice, sugar, spirits, and tobacco. A table will be found in Appendix IV showing the value of

these for the two years preceding the war. The increases and decreases over a number of years are curiously uneven, for they depend largely upon the success of ground-nuts in any particular year.

Countries of Origin.—Most of the imports come from the United Kingdom and British possessions, the percentages derived from this source between 1912 and 1916 being 60, 55, 61, 74, and 54 respectively. France and French possessions come next, contributing on an average 24 per cent. Germany furnished 13 per cent in 1912, 10 per cent in 1913, and 11 per cent in 1914. Except for the exclusion of Germany, conditions remain much as they always were. The main difference is one of degree, the total volume of exports and imports, including specie, having risen from £190,935 in 1895 to £1,958,316 in 1913.

Customs and Tariffs.—The only export duty is a duty on ground-nuts of 6s. 8d. per ton.

Specific import duties are paid on thirteen articles. Motor cars pay £5 each, motor cycles £1. Manufactured tobacco pays 2s. 3d. per lb., unmanufactured 6d., cigars and cigarettes 3s. per lb. Ale and porter, wines and spirits, all pay duty, which in the last case varies according to alcoholic strength, the standard being 5s. 6d. per imperial gallon of 50 per cent pure alcohol. Edible and lamp oils pay duties varying from 3d. to 6d. a gallon, kola nuts 3d. per lb., rice 6d. per cwt. There are also *ad valorem* duties of 10 per cent on jewellery, boots and shoes, and perfumery; 5 per cent on groceries and provisions; and 7½ per cent on all other imported goods not specifically exempted or taxed. The exemptions include Government stores, coal, agricultural implements, seeds, African produce (except rice, kola nuts and starch), machinery, books, and educational apparatus.

(D) FINANCE

(a) *Public Finance*

The financial position of Gambia is satisfactory, although the revenue fluctuates according to the success

or failure of the crop of ground-nuts, on which there is an export duty. For the five years ending in 1916 the total revenue was as follows :—

| | £ |
|-------------|---------|
| 1912 | 96,221 |
| 1913 | 124,995 |
| 1914 | 86,070 |
| 1915 | 92,252 |
| 1916 | 103,075 |

The principal sources of revenue are Customs duties, the chief being the export duty on ground-nuts, hut taxes, and farm rents from settlers in the Protectorate, and interest on the surplus funds of the dependency. The following table, from the *Annual Report*, shows the heads of revenue in the year before the outbreak of war :—

| | £ |
|---|-----------------|
| Customs | 97,691 |
| Port dues | 1,987 |
| Licences, excise, &c. ... | 3,004 |
| Fees of Court | 2,681 |
| Post Office | 1,714 |
| Rent of Government property | 507 |
| Government vessels | 1 |
| Interests on investments ... | 4,883 |
| Hut taxes and farm rents in Protectorate | 10,613 |
| Miscellaneous | 1,236 |
| Land sales | 673 |
| Total | £124,990 |

There is no public debt, and assets usually exceed liabilities. The total expenditure for the five years ending with 1916 was as follows :—

| | £ |
|-------------|---------|
| 1912 | 81,340 |
| 1913 | 95,209 |
| 1914 | 120,921 |
| 1915 | 89,028 |
| 1916 | 83,217 |

(b) Currency

The currency of the dependency consists of British coins, West African silver coins and certain foreign coins, of which the five-franc piece of the Latin Union is the only one of importance. The last is legal tender in the Colony and Protectorate at 3s. 10½d., but is current in trade at 4s. It is a favourite with the natives, because it is a useful medium of exchange with the inhabitants of adjoining French territory and with the "strange farmers" in the ground-nut season. Probably from 50 per cent. to 70 per cent. of payments in trade with natives of the Protectorate are made in this coin. British gold is never found in circulation.

(c) Banking

Until 1917 the Bank of British West Africa, Bathurst, was the only one in the dependency, but the Colonial Bank has now begun business in the same town.

(E) GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

From the economic point of view, the recent history of Gambia is encouraging. The dependency, it is true, is small, awkwardly shaped, and enclosed by French territory. Its inhabitants, though described by a former Governor as the best-behaved and most contented natives he had come across in Africa, are rather lazy and unenterprising. Its revenue, so long as ground-nuts remain its single source of wealth, will be liable to sudden changes. On the other hand, Bathurst harbour is an asset; the Gambia River is a means of cheap and easy transport; the climate for seven months of the year is the best in West Africa; and recent experience has shown, not only that the dependency has considerable economic resources, but that their presence has been realised and their development begun.

APPENDIX

I

TREATIES

Article X of the Treaty of Versailles, September 3, 1783,¹ provided: "The Most Christian King guarantees, on his part, to the King of Great Britain, the possession of Fort James and of the River Gambia." By Article VIII of the Treaty of Paris, May 30, 1814,² His Britannic Majesty undertook to return to His Most Christian Majesty "the colonies, fisheries, factories, and establishments of every kind which were possessed by France on January 1, 1792," in Africa. The operation of this article was held by France to validate its claim to the factory of Albreda on the north bank of the Gambia, on the ground that it had been occupied in 1786. This claim was surrendered by a Convention of March 7, 1857,³ in return for the surrender by Great Britain of the right of British subjects, accorded by the Treaty of 1783, Article XI, to trade for gum from the mouth of the River St. John to the bay and fort of Portendik. By Article III of the Convention of 1857 "Her Britannic Majesty consents that French subjects shall have free access to the River Gambia for the purposes of their commerce."

The extent of the British territorial rights on the banks of the Gambia was decided in principle by Article I of the Anglo-French arrangement concerning the delimitation of the English and French possessions on the West Coast of Africa, August 10, 1889,⁴ as explained by Annex 2. In effect the line was to start in the north from Jinnak Creek, and to follow parallel 13° 36' N. as far as the great bend of the river, whence it was to follow a line 10 kilometres distant from the river up to the landing-place known as Yabu Tenda, round which it was to run at the same distance from the centre of the town, following then at the same distance the south bank of the river to the meridian which passes through Sandeng, which meridian it was to follow to parallel 13° 10' N. This parallel was to be followed as far as the River San Pedro, the left bank of that river becoming the frontier as far as the sea. The precise delineation of this line was attempted

¹ Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, ii, 713.

² *Ibid.*, ii, 714.

³ *Ibid.*, ii, 716.

⁴ *Ibid.*, ii, 729, 734.

by a Boundary Commission, whose work was embodied in a protocol of June 9, 1891,¹ further defined by a report of May 8, 1893,² and by Boundary Commissions of 1895-96 and 1898-99, and 1905-06.³ The only important change, however, was that introduced by the Anglo-French Convention of April 8, 1904,⁴ Article V of which runs as follows:—

“ The present frontier between Senegambia and the English colony of the Gambia shall be modified so as to give to France Yarbutenda [Yabu Tenda] and the lands and landing-places belonging to that locality.

In the event of the river not being open to maritime navigation up to that point, access shall be assured to the French Government at a point lower down on the River Gambia, which shall be recognised by mutual agreement as being accessible to merchant ships engaged in maritime navigation.

The conditions which shall govern transit on the River Gambia and its tributaries, as well as the method of access to the point that may be reserved to France in accordance with the preceding paragraph, shall form the subject of future agreement between the two Governments.

In any case, it is understood that these conditions shall be at least as favourable as those of the system instituted by application of the General Act of the African Conference of the 26th February, 1885, and of the Anglo-French Convention of the 14th June, 1898, to the English portion of the Basin of the Niger.”

II

SHIPPING⁵

(a) *Tonnage and Nationality of Vessels Entered and Cleared, 1912-1915*

| Nationality. | | | 1912. | 1913. | 1914. | 1915. |
|--------------|----|----|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| | | | Tons. | Tons. | Tons. | Tons. |
| British | .. | .. | 361,883 | 371,419 | 366,396 | 317,000 |
| Foreign | .. | .. | 221,575 | 253,713 | 205,544 | 213,624 |
| Total | .. | .. | 583,458 | 625,132 | 571,940 | 530,624 |

¹ Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, ii, 742.

² *Ibid.*, ii, 754.

³ *Ibid.*, i, p. xlv.

⁴ *Ibid.*, ii, 817.

⁵ From the *Annual Reports*, 1912-1915.

(b) *Tonnage and Nationality of Vessels Entered and Cleared in 1912 and 1913*

| Nationality. | 1912. | | | 1913. | | |
|---------------|-----------|------------------|---------|-----------|------------------|---------|
| | Steamers. | Sailing Vessels. | Total. | Steamers. | Sailing Vessels. | Total. |
| | Tons. | Tons. | Tons. | Tons. | Tons. | Tons. |
| British .. | 361,107 | 776 | 361,883 | 370,921 | 498 | 371,419 |
| French .. | 80,536 | 1,230 | 81,766 | 74,495 | 1,775 | 76,270 |
| German .. | 52,940 | 2 | 52,942 | 60,626 | — | 60,626 |
| Russian .. | 2,296 | — | 2,296 | — | — | — |
| American .. | — | 609 | 609 | — | 428 | 428 |
| Norwegian .. | 14,141 | — | 14,141 | 20,426 | — | 20,426 |
| Portuguese .. | — | 4,158 | 4,158 | — | 4,295 | 4,295 |
| Danish .. | 14,124 | 1,232 | 15,356 | 24,040 | — | 24,040 |
| Swedish .. | 13,526 | — | 13,526 | 11,740 | — | 11,740 |
| Greek .. | 31,244 | — | 31,244 | 33,278 | — | 33,278 |
| Dutch .. | 2,937 | — | 2,937 | — | — | — |
| Spanish .. | — | 210 | 210 | 2,736 | — | 2,736 |
| Italian .. | — | — | — | 18,460 | — | 18,460 |
| Belgian .. | 2,390 | — | 2,390 | — | — | — |
| Uruguayan .. | — | — | — | 1,414 | — | 1,414 |

III.

PRINCIPAL EXPORTS, 1912-1916¹

| Year. | Ground-nuts. | | Hides. | | Palm kernels. | |
|-------|--------------|---------|-----------|--------|---------------|--------|
| | Quantity. | Value. | Quantity. | Value. | Quantity. | Value. |
| | Tons. | £ | Number. | £ | Tons. | £ |
| 1912 | 64,169 | 502,609 | 49,107 | 15,117 | 445 | 6,518 |
| 1913 | 67,704 | 622,098 | 47,031 | 18,718 | 546 | 9,026 |
| 1914 | 66,885 | 650,461 | 70,279 | 22,138 | 495 | 7,815 |
| 1915 | 96,152 | 400,435 | 40,647 | 11,911 | 326 | 5,457 |
| 1916 | 46,366 | 506,098 | 26,496 | 10,019 | 669 | 14,671 |

¹ From the *Annual Reports*, 1912-1916.

IV

PRINCIPAL IMPORTS, 1912 AND 1913¹

| Article. | | | | | | 1912. | 1913. |
|--------------|----|----|----|----|----|---------|---------|
| | | | | | | £ | £ |
| Cotton goods | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 124,345 | 201,797 |
| Hardware | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 23,021 | 27,276 |
| Rice | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 85,763 | 62,512 |
| Sugar | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 5,785 | 19,422 |
| Spirits | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 10,959 | 17,141 |
| Tobacco | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | 9,011 | 15,488 |

¹ From the *Annual Reports*, 1912 and 1913.

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MAPS

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE territory of Sierra Leone, of which part of the coastal area is a colony, while the rest is a protectorate, lies between $6^{\circ} 55'$ and 10° north latitude and $10^{\circ} 16'$ and $13^{\circ} 19'$ west longitude. It is bounded on the south-west by the Atlantic Ocean, on the north-west, north, and the northern part of the east by the colony of French Guinea, and on the southern part of the east by the negro republic of Liberia. It is situated close to the main trade routes between Europe and West and South Africa, and not far from the routes from Europe across the South Atlantic Ocean. The total area of the territory is about 27,300 square miles, of which about 550 square miles constitute the Colony.

The northern frontier runs in a north-easterly direction from Kiragbe (lat. $9^{\circ} 2' N.$) on the coast to the point where the Little Skarcies river crosses the tenth parallel of north latitude. The boundary then runs due east along the parallel for 45 miles. The eastern frontier has a generally south-easterly direction as far as the confluence of the Meli and Moa rivers, and a generally south-westerly direction from a point about 20 miles further south, where the meridian of longitude $10^{\circ} 39'$ west cuts the Mauwa river, to the sea at the mouth of the Mano. In between, a kind of peninsula of British territory, about 20 miles wide, juts out eastward between Liberia and French Guinea. Its northern boundary is the Moa valley, as far as the confluence of the Dundogbia river, at $10^{\circ} 19'$ west longitude, and its southern the Magoi and Mauwa valleys for about an equal distance, these being connected by an arbitrary line.

It will be seen from the map that rivers are utilised as boundaries to a considerable extent. Tribal limits are followed for the most part, except that the Kissi tribe is divided by the line drawn from the eastern limit on the Moa to the eastern limit on the Magoi.

(2) SURFACE, COAST, RIVERS, AND LAKES

Surface.—The country north of the 9th parallel is a confused mass of hills and grassy plateaux, varying in altitude from 800 to 3,000 feet. South of that parallel an undulating plain, with a few isolated hills and ridges, slopes towards the sea. Along the coast is a level strip varying from 10 to 40 miles in width, except in the Sierra Leone peninsula, which is covered by wooded hills, with an extreme altitude of 2,494 feet. The peninsula is 25 miles long, 12 miles wide, and has an area of about 280 square miles.

Practically the whole country is suitable for cultivation and settlement, except some of the higher ground in the north, and some rocky hills and swamps to the south. No detailed study of the soil has been made, but it appears to be fertile in most parts. Up to an altitude of about 2,000 feet much of the surface is covered with red laterite. Often this is combined with syenite, and is then very fertile, though when unmixed it is hard and barren. Above 2,000 feet the soil is usually composed of disintegrated gneiss and granite, of no great fertility. Along both the Skarcies rivers there is wonderfully rich soil, derived from dolerite, and the alluvium of the mangrove swamps in the coastal area produces extraordinary crops of wet rice. In the east there are large areas of good agricultural land, consisting of decomposed hornblendic granite.

There is an ample supply everywhere of surface and subsoil water. It is stated, however, that the disappearance of the rain-forest is resulting in the washing away of the surface soil in many places, and so is increasing the volume of flood-water in the rivers and reducing the amount of sub-soil water.

Coast.—The coast is 210 miles in length. It is low-lying, except along the Sierra Leone peninsula, and is intersected by numerous creeks and lagoons, bordered by mangrove forests. There are few bays, but there are a number of capes and headlands. The most important, named from north to south, are Ballo Point, Cape Sierra Leone, Cape Shilling '(225 feet high), Shenge (Tasso) Point, and Cape St. Ann. There are a good many islands off the coast. Among these may be noted groups in the estuaries of the Great and Little Skarcies rivers, the Banana Islands off Cape Shilling, the Turtle Islands off Cape St. Ann, and the large Sherbro Island (250 square miles). Turner's Peninsula, in the south-west, is practically an island. It consists of a low-lying stretch of land about 60 miles long and 8 miles wide at its broadest point, separating from the sea the lagoon formed by the Bum-Kittam river, the Kittam river, and other stretches of water.

Rivers.—The land is watered by a large number of streams. The chief rivers, named from north to south, are the Great Skarcies or Kolente; the Little Skarcies or Kabba; the Rokelle or Seli; the Jong, called in its upper course the Taia, Pampana, or Sanden; the Great Bum or Sewa, which unites with the Kittam to form the Bum-Kittam; the Sulima or Moa; and the Mano, known in its upper waters as the Morro. These have courses varying in length from 300 to 500 miles. Among important tributaries may be noted the Mango and the Mabile, feeding the Little Skarcies; the Bagwe, feeding the Sewa; and the Meli and Mauwa, feeding the Moa. None of the rivers is ever dry, and most of them contain a considerable volume of water throughout the year. Even in the dry season the Moa cannot be forded even so far inland as Baiima on the railway, and the Morro is 50 yards wide at Goli near the Liberian frontier.

Lakes.—Eleven lakes are known, and there may be others in the interior. Lake Kasse (9 miles long by 3 miles wide) and Lake Mabessi (6 miles long by 3 miles wide) form part of the upper waters of the Kittam

river, behind Turner's Peninsula. Smaller lakes in the North Sherbro district are Poppi, Kamasun, Kwarko, Baiama, and Masatoi. There are three small lakes on Sherbro Island. Lake Sonfon ($2\frac{1}{2}$ miles long by $\frac{3}{4}$ mile wide), in the Koinadugu district, is the source of one of the feeders of the Jong river.

(3) CLIMATE

Little information is available about the climate of the interior, but it is known that on the coast there are two seasons, the wet and the dry, of which the former lasts from May to October.

At Freetown, during a period of 21 years ending with 1916, the average annual rainfall was 164·8 inches (4,194 mm.). July and August are the wettest months, the average monthly fall in them having been 32·2 inches (818 mm.) during a period of 19 years, while during the same period in January, February, and March, which are the driest months, the average monthly fall was only 0·7 inch (18 mm.). In the interior the rains appear to begin a month or so earlier, and are said to be less heavy than on the coast. This latter statement is borne out by the fact that at Kaballa (about lat. $9^{\circ} 30' N.$) the average annual rainfall for the three years ending 1916 was 83·7 inches (2,126 mm.) as compared with 126·3 inches (3,208 mm.), the corresponding figure at Freetown during the same period. The rainy season all over the country opens and closes with heavy thunderstorms, which are said to be more violent in the Karina district than elsewhere.

The prevailing wind on the coast is from the west; but throughout the territory the *harmattan*, a dry easterly wind, blows between December and February. From April to August inclusive there is said to be a sea-breeze on the coast during the hottest part of the day.

The average maximum temperature at Freetown was $88^{\circ} F.$ ($31^{\circ} C.$) during the 12 years ending

in 1916; and during the same period the average minimum temperature was 72° F. (22° C.). The hottest months are February to April inclusive, and the coolest are July and August, which also are the wettest. During the five years 1909-1913 the highest recorded (shade) temperature at Freetown was 101° F. (38° C.), and the lowest was 60° F. (15° C.).

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The coastal climate is damp, hot, and unhealthy for Europeans, but the interior is much less trying, and is said to be suitable for European planters. Malaria is common among both Europeans and natives, and accounts for the death of many native infants; but the natives are also very subject to diseases of the respiratory organs, and it is said that in the interior more of them die of bronchitis than of malaria. Small-pox, a dry-season disease, is endemic, and sometimes assumes serious proportions; there was an outbreak of it in 1915, but good results have followed the introduction of compulsory vaccination in some districts. The annual total of vaccinations has risen from 10,000 to nearly 90,000. Dysentery, blackwater fever, elephantiasis, and skin diseases are common. Sleeping sickness, although said to be increasing, has not become a serious plague so far; but since *glossina palpalis* is found everywhere, it may extend. Yellow fever has been much reduced. The natives have a considerable knowledge of the medicinal uses of plants.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

In the Colony proper the inhabitants are mostly Sierra Leoneans or Creoles. These people are descendants of the original settlers, and of the liberated slaves, who were imported into this part of Africa in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. They are of many African nationalities, mixed, in some cases, with a little European blood. Their language is English, and they are Christians.

In the Protectorate there are 14 principal tribes, all speaking different languages. These are divided into many clans (the Timmani alone have at least 25 clans), some of whom speak different dialects. The most important of the tribes are the Mendi (about 420,000), who are found in the southern parts of the Ronietta and Railway districts¹; the Timmani (about 300,000), whose country lies in the southern part of the Karina district and the eastern part of the Ronietta district; the Limba (about 100,000), who live in the north-western parts of the Karina and Koinadugu districts; the Sherbro (about 80,000), found along the coast south of the Sierra Leone peninsula; the Susu (about 60,000), in the north; and the Kuranko (about 60,000), in the Railway district north of the Konno. Of these tribes the Mendi, the Lokko (about 26,000), and the Krim (about 9,000), who are probably branches of the Mendi, with the Vai (or Vei, about 8,000), who possibly are a branch of the Mendi, but more probably belong to the Mandingo tribe, as well as the Sherbro and their branch, the Bullom (about 5,000), are classed as autochthonous; the others, together with the Fula (about 9,000), the Mandingo (about 10,000), and the Yalunka (about 8,000), who are a branch of the Susu, are thought to be descendants of invaders from the north. Most of these distinctions of origin, however, are of a somewhat speculative character. In addition to the connections given above, it should be stated that the Konno, the Kuranko, and perhaps the Susu are branches of the Mandingo, while the Timmani are connected with the Baga, of French Guinea. The Mandingo, the Fula, and the Susu are far more numerous beyond the British frontier, in French Guinea; while the Vai and Gora are more numerous in Liberia.

As regards the origin of the languages spoken there is much speculation, and few authorities are in agreement; it seems, however, that Fula is a Hamitic

¹ The Railway district is the central eastern district marked Panguma on the map.

language, while the others are Sudanese. Of these Sherbro, Bullom, Krim, Timmani, and Limba belong to the prefix group, while Mendi, Lokko, Vai, Mandingo, Konno, Kuranko, Susu, and Yalunka belong to the non-prefix group. There is, as might be expected, much overlapping of languages; for instance, Mendi is absorbing Sherbro, Krim, and Vai; while Bullom is being displaced by Timmani. Of the numerous dialects, some differ greatly from others, and some differ but slightly.

(6) POPULATION

The Colony proper, that is to say, practically the Sierra Leone peninsula and Sherbro Island, contained at the last census (1911) a population of 75,572; of these about 60,000 were Creoles, who are town-dwellers. The aboriginal inhabitants, who are estimated to number about 1,300,000 in the Protectorate and about 15,000 in the Colony, live on the land; all are farmers except the pastoral Fula, who number about 9,000 and are a nomadic or semi-nomadic race, and some of the Susu. In addition to Creoles and natives there were in 1916 over 500 non-military Europeans, officials and traders, and also some 3,000 Syrians (said by some to be Beyroutis, and by others to come from various parts of the Mediterranean area), who are spreading over almost every part of the country where trade can be carried on.

It appears from the above estimate of population that the inhabitants number about 50 to the square mile, a figure which seems high for such a country. The probability of the population having been estimated at an excessive number is increased by the fact that there is only one town of any size in the whole territory, and that reports indicate that there is a difficulty about obtaining labour for ordinary agricultural work.

The chief towns are Freetown, Bonthe, and Waterloo; there are a few smaller towns along the coast, and

some townships inhabited by Creoles in the Colony. In the Protectorate the natives live in villages of which the populations vary from about 50 to several hundreds. The sites of these villages appear to have been selected mainly on account of their proximity to land suitable for agriculture, and at present new villages are being made near good agricultural land when the land surrounding the old villages can no longer support their population.

Nothing definite is known concerning the increase or decrease of the population, the census figures for the Colony not furnishing reliable facts for comparative purposes, while those for the Protectorate are only estimates. The registration records of births and deaths in the Colony, which have been maintained since January 1, 1914, tend to show that the deaths considerably exceed the births; but this may not indicate a falling population, since of recent years there has been an influx from the interior into the Colony of men seeking for work, who probably do not bring their women with them. Indeed, there is some evidence to show that the cessation of wars and slave raids in the hinterland is resulting, as might be expected, in an increase of the population. So far as is known, no migratory movements of any importance are in progress.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1787-88 Beginning of the British settlement.
- 1808 Sierra Leone made a Crown Colony.
- 1818 Acquisition of the Iles de Los.
- 1861 Acquisition of Sherbro.
- 1866 Seat of Government for British West Africa.
- 1882 First Anglo-French Boundary Convention.
- 1885 Boundary with Liberia settled.
- 1888 Sierra Leone constituted a separate Colony.
- 1889 Second Anglo-French Boundary Convention.
- 1891 Third Anglo-French Boundary Convention.
- 1895 Fourth Anglo-French Boundary Convention.
- 1904 Iles de Los ceded to France.
- 1911-13 Final Agreement with France and Liberia.

(1) ORIGIN OF THE COLONY

SIERRA LEONE owed its origin in 1787-88 to philanthropic efforts to find a home for freed African slaves and other negroes who had fallen into destitution in the United Kingdom; and, after some vicissitudes, direct government by the Crown of the territory so acquired was brought into force in 1808. The original territory was gradually increased through successive cessions by native rulers; and, though this process was temporarily arrested by the resolution (1865) of the Select Committee of the House of Commons in favour of the restriction of British authority in West Africa, it was shortly afterwards renewed.

(2) RELATIONS WITH FRANCE

The process of expansion was, however, checked by the development of French activity; and so early as

June 28, 1882, an agreement with France assigned to Great Britain the basin of the Skarcies river as the western boundary of the Colony and British sphere, and reserved the basin of the Mellakore to France. Further definition of the boundary between French Guinea and Sierra Leone was effected by the treaties of August 10, 1889, June 26, 1891, and January 21, 1895.¹ The net effect of the agreement of 1891, which embodied an "express understanding" that, in the region of the Upper Niger, "both banks of the Niger shall remain in the sphere of French influence," was definitely to terminate the possibility of extending the British sphere to the Upper Niger. The Iles de Los were ceded in 1904 to France as part of the settlement of the Newfoundland fisheries question; and certain modifications of the frontier were agreed to, which were further altered by an exchange of notes (July 6, 1911),² and an agreement of September 4, 1913.³

(3) RELATIONS WITH LIBERIA

The boundary with Liberia on the east was long under discussion, until in 1882 the government of Sierra Leone obtained from the natives cessions of territory up to the Mano river, which Liberia recognised as the boundary by the treaty of November 11, 1885. The boundary was provisionally marked out by commissioners in 1902-3, but was altered by a treaty of January 21, 1911,⁴ in order to secure for Great Britain a portion of the Kissi country in exchange for a cession of territory between the Mano and Morro rivers. An agreement of April 10, 1913, provides for rules respecting the navigation of the Mano river.⁵ A

¹ For the Treaties or Agreements of 1882, 1889, 1891, see Africa, No. 7, 1892 (C. 6701, June 1892).

² Cd. 6101.

³ Cd. 7147.

⁴ Cd. 5719.

⁵ Cd. 6803.

boundary commission of 1913-14 marked out the boundary from the River Moa in the north to the River Magowi in the south; and the boundary so delimited was accepted by an exchange of notes of June 19-26, 1917.¹

¹ Cd. 8589.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

CHRISTIANITY is represented most prominently by the Anglicans; but the Wesleyans, United Methodists, and Roman Catholics, as well as some minor sects, are also active. Of late years, however, Christianity appears to have made comparatively little progress, while Mohammedanism has been fairly successful; but paganism still largely prevails.

(2) POLITICAL

In 1821, and again in 1866, Sierra Leone was made the centre of the administration of the British West African territories, the other colonies being placed in a relation of dependence. Since 1888, however, when the Gambia was made a separate colony, Sierra Leone has been on the same footing as the other West African colonies. The result of the settlement of 1895 with France was to render it necessary to place under effective administration the territories now recognized as within the British sphere of influence; in 1897 authority to legislate for the government of these territories was vested in the Legislative Council of the Colony, and a scheme of Government was introduced. The imposition of a hut tax, as part of the scheme and its necessary financial basis, produced a revolt in 1898, which was not repressed until much damage had been done. By 1900, however, complete peace had been restored; and the control of the Government has steadily extended, despite the utter barbarism of a considerable proportion of the tribes of the Protectorate.

The legislative authority over the Colony and the Protectorate alike is exercised by the Governor in Legislative Council, this body consisting of five or six officials and four non-official persons nominated by the Crown. Throughout the Protectorate and the part of the Colony administered on the same lines, authority is exercised through the native chiefs under Government supervision; and native courts are permitted, on similar conditions, to exercise a considerable amount of jurisdiction in all cases affecting natives and resting on native law.

(3) PUBLIC EDUCATION

In the Colony elementary education is given in elementary mission schools, of which there were 112 in 1915. These schools receive State aid, and have an average attendance of about 4,800 pupils, whom they instruct in reading, writing, arithmetic, and geography, elementary hygiene, and sanitation. Various crafts, history, geography, and nature study are included in the curriculum of most schools. There is also a governmental model elementary school in connexion with which teachers are trained; it has accommodation for 200 senior and 100 infant pupils, and undertakes work up to the Cambridge Senior Local standard. There are two industrial schools, one maintained by the Roman Catholics at Mohe, with Government aid, and one at Waterloo maintained by the Seventh Day Adventists; thirteen secondary schools, eight missionary and five proprietary, with an average attendance of 1,050; and a Diocesan Technical School, with 30 pupils (in 1915), at which instruction is given in the theory and practice of the building trade and kindred subjects. Fourah Bay College, which in 1915 had 15 students, is affiliated to the University of Durham, and is the only university college in West Africa. There are, further, five Mohammedan schools, with an average attendance of 411 (in 1915), at which the ordinary elementary school subjects, with the addition of Arabic, are taught.

In the Protectorate there is a governmental school at Bo for the training of the sons and nominees of chiefs (with 113 pupils in 1915), and an elementary day school at Bumpeh in the railway district. There are also a number of mission schools, most of which, however, are of limited value owing to the lack of funds for providing satisfactory teachers. The total expenditure on education is under £14,000 annually.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The principal features of Sierra Leone as a British colony may be summed up as follows. (1) It owes its origin entirely to philanthropy and peaceful cession, and is specially associated with the beginnings of the crusade against the slave trade and slavery. It has, therefore, a peculiar sentimental value in the eyes of a large number of British citizens, who might be more or less indifferent to political, military, and commercial grounds for maintaining or extending British overseas possessions. (2) It possesses a fine harbour, which is half-way to the Cape, and has been constituted a fortified Imperial coaling station. (3) It is encircled by French territory, except on the side where it marches with Liberia, a negro republic, whose origin was similar to its own. But (4), though cut off from the Niger basin, it possesses sufficient back-country to make it, with its coast districts, valuable for commercial purposes, apart from the value of the harbour and the associations of the Colony.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

IN Sierra Leone, as in other West African colonies, the secret of economic success lies in offering to the native inducements so considerable that he will be persuaded to exploit the natural wealth at his command instead of resting content with the bare necessities of existence. Among such inducements a high place belongs to cheap and easy transport. The palm belts in Sierra Leone are of wide extent, and incalculable quantities of oil and kernels are to be had for the taking; but for years tons of nuts rotted on the ground every season, simply because the regions where the palms flourish were cut off from the markets by miles of difficult country.

For this and other reasons the Government of Sierra Leone has devoted itself seriously to improving means of communication. The first Government railway in West Africa was opened here, and was persisted with in the face of many obstacles. Feeder roads have been built to bring the trade down to the stations on this line. Head carriage has been supplemented by revolving casks, by bullock-carts, by pack animals, and even, of late, by motor vehicles. Much, no doubt, remains to be done, both in adding to the main arteries of communication and in solving the problems of minor transport in regions distant from those main lines. Yet already a considerable improvement has been effected. Mr. T. J. Alldridge, whose experience as an official in Sierra Leone dates from 1871, travelled the length of the railway in 1910, noting the changes since first he was there. The impression he received is reflected in.

the title he chose for his book—*A Transformed Colony: Sierra Leone*.

(a) *Roads, Paths, and Tracks*

In the Colony, outside Freetown, there were in 1916 about 150 miles of roads maintained by the Public Works Department. These are mostly unmetalled, become badly rutted in the rainy season, and are easily overgrown with grass and small bush.

A separate Roads Department for the Protectorate was formed in January 1913, and has under its care all first- and second-class roads, while the third-class roads are still under the control of the District Commissioners, and are cleaned and kept in order by the chiefs. The total mileage was estimated in 1914 as 1,361 miles, 68 of the first class, 81 of the second, and 1,212 of the third. All these roads are unmetalled, but the first-class roads are wider and have steel and concrete bridges, whereas the rest are only provided with the native "stick" bridges, ingenious but often unsafe. In a country full of deep ravines this is no small consideration.

Feeder roads, with a hard surface, and often planted with shade trees, now converge upon the more important railway stations—Moyamba, Bo, Blama, Hangha, Segbwima, Baiima, Pendembu, and others. The case of Bo is a good illustration of the value of such roads. The railway line reached this point as early as 1903, but the place remained unknown to traders, while the natives continued to take their produce to Sumbuya, for Bonthe, by a time-honoured route which crossed the line some ten miles nearer to Freetown. In 1906, however, the Government built a road connecting Bo with Mandu and the palm country to the north. Two European firms and other traders then set up stores, a market was created, the old Sumbuya route was deserted, and to-day Bo is one of the busiest up-country stations. One of the latest roads made, running north-east from Pendembu to Kanre Lahun (Kailahun), and forming

the main artery of trade with the French Kissis, is suitable for mechanical transport.

A large part of the Protectorate, however, is still unprovided with other means of communication than the tortuous native tracks. In the slave-trade days these were purposely kept narrow and overgrown, so as to facilitate escape and concealment. Now, however, many chiefs are applying their energies to straightening and improving them.

The quantity of produce which can be dealt with, of course, depends largely on the nature of the roads available. On the bush-tracks the only transport is by native carriers, who trot along in single file, with their burden in palm-leaf baskets, 6 ft. in length by 9 in. in width, strapped on head or back. The regulation load for Government transport is 50 lb., though the native carrying for himself or his chief can manage as much as 100 lb., or even 150 lb. for a short distance. All sorts of efforts have been made to supplement this slow and expensive method. In 1909 a forest official suggested that elephants, which are plentiful in the forest near the Morro river, might be tamed and trained for transport purposes. On the feeder roads leading to Hangha loads are dragged along in revolving casks with iron handles. These can be hired at a small charge, and are made in two sizes. The larger, which must be drawn by four men, takes a load of 700 lb., and the smaller, which two men can manage, 300 lb. The constant revolution, however, would damage any goods except kernels or cement. Sometimes use is made of a four-wheeled bullock wagon, which can carry 1 ton. Motor lorries would be better still, and a few have been landed. On the present roads, however, they could not be used very extensively.

(b) Rivers

Sierra Leone is well provided with waterways, though they are not all or always useful for transport purposes. Streams which in the rains are navigable

for large vessels are of little use in the dry season. Moreover, many of the rivers have rocky beds impeded by boulders. However, several retain a considerable volume of water even when at their lowest, and water transport is always cheaper than land transport. Consequently, the streams in the north were formidable competitors to the first 60 miles of the railway, while those in the south continue to serve a region which is left untouched by the railway. European firms place their factories at the navigable heads of these rivers, and the produce collected there is sent down to the coast in native surf-boats and canoes.

The principal navigable rivers in the north are the Great Skarcies, the Little Skarcies and the Rokelle, which in its estuary receives the name of the Sierra Leone river. This last is navigable for 40 miles, to Mabile, while a regular electric launch service plies from Freetown up the northern arm of the estuary to Port Lokko. If a similar service were instituted along the Great Skarcies to Tawiya (30 miles), the whole of the northern alluvial coast lands would be brought into touch with the capital.

The central part of the coast is served by the Bumpe, navigable to Rotifunk (25 miles), and the Walle, navigable to Senahu (20 miles).

In the south there is a fine waterway, known as the Sherbro river, between the mainland and Sherbro Island. Into this flow the Bagru, navigable to Tasso (20 miles) and the Jong, navigable for 15 miles. Next comes the Bum-Kittam, flowing parallel with the coast behind Turner's Peninsula, and navigable during the rains by craft drawing 12 ft. of water for 35 miles. The Great Bum river, which flows south into the Kittam, is only practicable in the wet season as far as Mafwe Falls (30 miles). The Upper Kittam is navigable for about 25 miles. Further south, again, is the Sulima or Moa river, blocked 20 miles from its mouth by falls at Wedaro.

It has been suggested that trade would be stimulated if a light-draught steamer could run regularly between

Sherbro and Freetown. Such a course, however, involves a very dangerous bit of navigation across Yawri Bay.

(c) *Railways*

Railway System in general.—"There is nothing remarkable about the Sierra Leone Government Railway," wrote Mr. Alldridge, "except that it is where it is." By this he meant not only that the line, carried through forest and mountain, has had to overcome huge natural difficulties, but also that it has plunged into the heart of country which till its appearance seemed utterly remote from civilization. It passes through districts which quite recently were fastnesses of cannibalism and fetishism, the haunt of "human leopard societies," the scene of the barbarous outrages of the revolt of 1898. "What a civiliser this railway has been!" wrote Sir Harry Johnston, pointing the contrast between old and new by the story of the polite attendant at the refreshment-bar, some two-thirds of the way up the line, whom he identified as a man formerly on trial for killing and eating a human victim.

Commercial expansion has also followed the development of the railway, though it was not until the palm country was reached in 1904 that the effects began to be evident. Whereas in 1901-3 the average annual value of palm-kernels exported was £186,000, in 1905-8 it was £344,000. In the same period the total average value of exports rose from £375,000 to £711,000.

The total mileage open to traffic at the end of the year 1916, exclusive of sidings, was 354 miles. The gauge throughout is 2 ft. 6 in., and the same rolling-stock is used on all lines. Some surprise has been expressed that a 3 ft. 6 in. gauge, uniform with the Nigeria and Gold Coast lines, was not adopted, but it must be remembered that the cost of a broader gauge would have been prohibitive at the time when Sierra Leone made its first railway experiment. If, however, lines are built in Liberia to link up with the Sierra

Leone system, the problem will arise anew, and it may be that the wisest decision will be to scrap the present line, and secure the advantages of a broad-gauge heavy railway.

The present system is made up of five principal parts :—

(1) The main line, 220 miles in length, running south-eastward from Freetown by Waterloo, Boia, Bo, and Blama to Baiima. The country is intersected by deep tropical gorges, and in the first 20 miles no less than 11 steel viaducts had to be built. Among these may be noted the Orogu viaduct, 386 ft. long and 74 ft. high; the Maroon viaduct, 330 ft. long and 82 ft. high; and the Ribbi viaduct, with nine spans and a total length of 662 ft. The rivers which these viaducts bridge used to be serious impediments to travel. In 1894, for example, the Governor and his column took three hours to cross the Ribbi river, their only means of transport being four dug-out canoes. Further up the line there are other huge bridges, such as those over the Taia (589 ft.), the Sewa (718 ft.) and the Moa (633 ft.). The first sod was cut for the line in 1896, and the first section was opened to the public in 1899. Bo was reached in 1903, Blama in 1904, and Baiima in 1905.

(2) A tramway extension from Baiima to Pendembu, close to the Liberian frontier. The trains run along a road 12 ft. wide, with clearings to a width of 66 ft. For a considerable distance the road is a raised causeway above swamps.

(3) A branch leaving the main line at Boia Junction, 63 miles from Freetown, and running north-east through the palm-growing Yonni country, by Yonnibanna and Makump, and so across the Rokell river to Makene and Kamabai. This last point, 104 miles from Boia, was reached in February 1917.

(4) A mountain railway, 6 miles in length, with gradients as steep as 1 in 22, from Freetown to Hill Station, 800 ft. above the town. This was completed in 1904.

(5) Lines connecting the Freetown terminus with the Government wharf, the Government quarry, &c.

Financial Considerations.—West African railways in their early days were a very controversial subject, and in some quarters their cost was considered an excessive charge upon colonial resources. It is true that a large part of the public debt of Sierra Leone was due to expenditure on the railways; but, as the Governor pointed out in 1908, when there was a deficit of more than £20,000 in the Colony's finances for the year, the expenditure was well considered, and made with a view to the future. Mr. Shelford, an engineer prominent in the construction of West African railways, in a lecture to the African Society in 1902, vigorously defended the Sierra Leone line against its critics. He pointed out that a distinguished engineer had once estimated its probable cost at £10,000 a mile; that a well-known contractor had offered to do it for £8,000 a mile; but that the first section of 32 miles had in actual fact cost only £4,200 a mile. For purposes of comparison he instanced the Congo railway, which cost £10,400 a mile.

For the first five years of its existence, and the first 168 miles of its course, the railway had to live mainly on hopes. In 1904 the working expenses exceeded the receipts by £5,000. Since then, however, both the main line and the Yonni tramway have tapped the palm-yielding country, and the prospects are brighter. In 1916 the railway carried 503,706 passengers and 54,570 tons of goods. The revenue was £156,429 and the working expenditure £127,466, so that there was a surplus of £28,963 in earnings over expenses. This represents 1·8 per cent. on the total capital expenditure of £1,612,143. The receipts were higher than for any year since the war began, though not so high as in 1913, when they reached their maximum of £167,661. Goods traffic was the principal source of revenue, totalling £115,996 in 1916, as against £35,139 earned by coaching traffic (passengers, parcels, and luggage). It must

be remembered that in Sierra Leone the only land system of telegraphs and telephones is under the control of the railway, which in 1916 earned from this source £2,497.

A return showing the revenue and working expenses from 1907-1916 will be found in Appendix II, p. 50.

(d) Posts, Telegraphs, Telephones

At the end of 1916, 45 post offices and postal agencies were open. Savings-bank business was transacted at 11 of these, money-order business at 23, and postal-order business at 36. In 1913 there were 53 offices open, but postal business fell off considerably after the outbreak of the late war. It seems now to be growing again, for in 1916 the revenue amounted to £8,046, an increase of £573 over the previous year. In any case, temporary interruptions are inconsiderable as compared with the rapid expansion over the last 20 years. In 1898 there were 23 post offices, 4 money-order offices, and no postal-order offices.

The only non-military land telegraph system is under the control of the Railway Department. Telegraph and telephone services are in operation between Freetown and Pendembu, and between Boia and Kamabai on the branch line. There are important transmitting centres at Boia and Bo, and sub-stations at Songo Town, from which messages are telephoned to Port Lokko, and at Mano, from which telegraph lines run south for 71½ miles through Sirabu and Sengema to Bendu. There is a telegraph line from Sengema to Pujehun (47 miles). In all, more than 1,100 miles of wire are in use. A public telephone exchange was opened at Freetown in 1916, and connected with Hill Station, the Government offices, and the chief mercantile houses. Both the telegraph and telephone services have been much improved of late years.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) Ports

Accommodation.—The chief ports, named from south to north, are Mano Sulija and Sulima, both close to the Liberian frontier; Sherbro harbour; Freetown, on the Sierra Leone peninsula; and Mahela, on the point between the estuaries of the Great and Little Skarcies rivers. A full list of the number and tonnage of vessels entered and cleared at these ports is given in Appendix III (a), p. 50. It should be noted, however, that here and there the facts are rather disguised by the figures. For instance, the majority of the vessels which call at Sherbro and go on to Freetown are recorded at the latter. Whereas in 1912 and 1913 only one ship is recorded as entered at Sherbro, 135 in the former year and 151 in the latter called at the port. Ships entered at Mano Sulija are often cleared at Sulima or Freetown.

The approach to the Sierra Leone river is difficult at night or during the season of haze produced by the *harmattan* wind. Once past Cape Sierra Leone, however, the course for five miles lies in deep water, close to the shore, till Freetown is reached. Here the depth of water is sufficient for the largest vessels afloat, and, although ocean-going steamers cannot go alongside the wharves, passengers and goods can be landed in boats in still water all the year round. There is a Government wharf, 1,150 ft. in length, with a depth alongside of 5 ft. at low water and 15 ft. at high water. The railway lines run to this wharf, from which there have been built out two new screw pile jetties, each 100 ft. long, with a depth of 20 ft. alongside at high water. These are being lengthened, and a third jetty, 145 ft. long, with rails and a travelling crane, has been constructed. There are five private wharves. A new export wharf is under construction at Cline Town, and when this is finished steamers will be able to go alongside to load.

Sherbro harbour is the name given to the whole channel behind Sherbro Island, on which is the town

of Bonthe, and a considerable volume of river-borne trade is dealt with there. Vessels drawing 24 ft. of water can ascend as far as Bobs Island, about 20 miles from the open sea; craft drawing 18 ft. can go on 10 miles further, to York Island; while those drawing 8 ft. can reach Bonthe.

Nature and Volume of Trade.—Before the outbreak of war many of the vessels calling at Freetown were German, and many British vessels calling were engaged in trade with German ports. The total shipping inwards in 1913 was 993 ships, with a total tonnage of 1,463,602 tons. Of these, the British tonnage was 1,025,591, or 70 per cent.; while German tonnage was 406,811, or 27 per cent. The German shipping had been steadily on the increase for years. Under the abnormal conditions produced by the war British shipping has risen to 91 per cent.

Details of inward shipping between 1912 and 1916 will be found in Appendix III (b) and (c), p. 51. Outward shipping is practically the same.

Adequacy to Economic Needs.—The resources of Freetown harbour are not yet sufficient for dealing with a big overseas trade. Since 1914 the port has become more widely known among shipowners and merchants, and it is essential to proceed with the improvements in appliances for handling cargo.

(b) *Shipping Lines*

In Appendix III (d) will be found a table of the principal lines of steamers which traded with Sierra Leone in 1912 and 1913. The express mail and passenger boats of the Woermann Line began to call in 1911, and on account of their excellent accommodation and punctuality were prospering at the expense of some of the British lines. Elder, Dempster & Co. used to have a weekly mail service to Freetown from Liverpool; there are now about three mail boats a month. The same firm's new cargo service between New York and West Africa calls at Sierra Leone.

(c) *Telegraphic Communication*

Telegrams can be sent to all parts of the world from any railway station through the African Direct Telegraph Company, Freetown.

There is a wireless station at Freetown, under the control of the same company, with a normal range of 250 nautical miles.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

Supply of Labour.—There seems nowadays to be an adequate supply of labour for ordinary purposes, though, when large numbers of carriers were wanted for military expeditions, or labourers for the railway, there was not a sufficient surplus available without temporary neglect of agriculture. In the Protectorate the natives all work their own farms, so that there is no question of labour employed by planters. In the Colony the Sierra Leoneans do no agricultural labour, but employ natives for their household and farm work. Traders and the Government require a limited amount of paid labour, and this is readily obtainable at rates varying from 6*d.* to 9*d.* a day.

Before 1898 labourers from Sierra Leone sought service outside the Colony in large numbers, but they now no longer do so.

Labour Conditions.—Under the native tribal system the chiefs, heads of families, families, and so-called “slaves,” who might be more accurately described as serfs, all work together, partly for their own good and partly for the community.

“Casual observers who have seen native families travelling along the roads, the man walking ahead, and his women-folk following behind carrying such few household goods as they take with them, may be tempted to suppose that the men allow the women to do all the work. Such is not the case, and the admirable and economical division of labour between the men and the women is a remarkable feature of native life. The men do the heavy agricultural work, road-clearing, sowing,

palm-climbing, roof-building, carrying heavy loads; the women crack the nuts, extract the oil, weed, and prepare and apply the mud with which the houses are plastered, while the children are usefully employed in looking after the poultry. In the tribal community every individual has his place; none are overlooked, and pauperism is unknown. A native, on being informed that in Europe men have died of starvation, greets the assertion with incredulity.¹

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

The mainstay of Sierra Leone is the oil palm (*Elaeis guineensis*), which is indigenous, and finds congenial soil and nutriment almost everywhere in the Protectorate. The exceptions are rocky or swampy strips, and dry lands in the extreme north, where there is not enough moisture except beside the streams. These areas apart, Sierra Leone is covered with dense stretches of palm forest. Authorities are unanimous in laying stress on the enormous wealth of the country in this respect, and in deploring the carelessness of the native, who destroys the trees in quantities to make room for his rice farms. As long ago as 1795 Dr. Afzelius noted the prevalence of this "common, handsome, and useful tree"; while in 1916 Mr. Lane Poole, of the Forest Department, stated that

"a time will come when all the palm trees in the country will have to yield their fruit to the merchant, and it is quite impossible to have too many of this valuable species."

The variety of palm which grows in Sierra Leone, however, has a thin pericarp and a thick-shelled kernel. Palm-oil is taken from the pericarp only, so that the yield of oil in proportion to kernels is not so great as in parts of Africa, such as the Gold Coast, where the pericarp is more fleshy.

In 1912 it seemed likely that an era of rapid development would begin for the palm industry. Lever Bros.

¹ Annual Report, 1908, p. 61.

secured a monopoly for 21 years for the extraction of palm-oil and cracking of kernels by machinery over an area of several hundred square miles in the Yonnibanna district. They opened a large factory with the latest machinery close to a private railway siding. Unfortunately the natives could not be convinced that the scheme, so far from interfering with the local palm industry, would be to its ultimate benefit. Some chiefs gave their support, but labour was not readily offered, and in 1915 it was decided to close the factory and transfer the plant to the Gold Coast.

Next in importance, in the present state of export trade, comes the kola tree (*Cola acuminata*), which grows wild in certain forests, and is also nowadays extensively cultivated both in the Colony and in the Protectorate. Almost every village has its kola grove, but the native "so works his plantation that he gets the minimum possible yield from the maximum number of trees." He surrounds his plants with "medicine" to guard them against misfortune, but himself brings disaster upon them by crowding the plants, nipping off the shoots of seedlings when they are only 3 ft. high, encouraging the parasite mistletoe, and making deep cuts in the stem. The tree has many insect and fungoid enemies. Better methods of cultivation would be well repaid, for there is a huge demand among the Moham-medan natives of Africa for the fresh nuts. They are not easy to market, however, for they can only be kept fresh by constant renewal of the thick leaves in which they are packed.

Ginger (*Zingiber officinale*), which was introduced to tropical Africa from the East, grows pretty freely in the Ronietta and Railway districts. The soil, however, which is laterite gravel, does not bring the roots to a very large size. The native is apt to leave them in the ground too long, and uses sand to rub off the outer skin, a method which for himself has the advantage of adding a good deal of sand to the weight of the finished product, but which for the purchaser has obvious

disadvantages. Consequently, Sierra Leone ginger is not likely to command a high price.

There are fine forests of camwood (*Baphia nitida*), and the fast red dye to be obtained from this tree acquired a sudden export value in 1914, when the supply of aniline dyes ran short. This was, however, only temporary.

Many fibre-producing plants are indigenous. The native makes stout fishing-lines from the mid-rib of the oil palm and coconut leaflets, while for delicate work he uses the fibre of the pineapple. The wine or bamboo palm (*Raphia vinifera*) is common, and the piassava obtained from it is of value for export as well as for local use, though prices in the European markets vary considerably. Sherbro piassava is considered to be the finest in West Africa.

Rubber is obtainable from various sources. Djenje rubber, a valuable kind, and Jawar rubber used to be got from two kinds of *Landolphia* vine, which grew widely in the rain forest. The natives, however, have destroyed many of the vines. *Funtumia elastica* is found in the forests, but the native's method of preparation is very defective. He fells the trees, covers them with dry grass, and sets this on fire, so that the heat may coagulate the latex. The bark is then bruised off with a stone and the debris washed in the nearest stream. The result is a dirty rubber fetching from 2s. to 2s. 6d. per lb. A cheap sort of rubber is also obtained from *Ficus vogelii*. Ceará rubber (*Manihot glaziovii*) was introduced, but its tapping presents special difficulties, not yet overcome. Better results might be obtained from Pará rubber (*Hevea brasiliensis*), which has done well in various plantations. Of late years rubber prices have been low and the export on the down-grade, so that there was no stimulus to experiment. In 1916, however, 10 tons were exported, as against 1 ton in 1915, and the value was £1,848, as compared with £40. If this demand continues, it will be worth while to extend cultivation and protect the wild rubber.

Another product which has suffered heavily through native ignorance is gum copal, obtained from *Copaifera guibourtiana*. The trees were once very widely distributed, and even now exist in great numbers in certain places, notably on the Kassewe Hills, south-east of Yonnibanna. The natives, however, recklessly push their rice farms into the midst of the richest belts, and will even cut down a gum tree to make a bridge. Moreover, even when using the trees for their proper purpose, they tap them literally to death. Holes 1 in. square and $\frac{1}{4}$ in. deep are chopped all over the trunk with a small hoe. The gum exudes and hardens, and is collected without the least care about cleansing it and freeing it from chips and dirt. This misuse of natural wealth, however, is coming to an end; for the export of gum copal has been prohibited for five years from September 1913, and the Kassewe Hills were in 1914 made a forest reserve. With a long rest the trees will recover, for they exhibit in this region a marvellous capacity for natural regeneration.

Among foodstuffs, rice forms the staple food of the country, and, though not indigenous, has been cultivated from time immemorial. Swamp rice of fine quality is grown in the Timmani country, especially near Port Lokko, and hill rice, which is smaller and thinner, on dry land. African rice, though of high nutritive value, is dark in colour, and the rind is not thoroughly removed by the native method of pounding with pestle and mortar. It is possible, therefore, that it would never command a wide market in Europe. Its export to other parts of Africa, however, might be much developed. Early missionaries introduced American rice, which has done well on swampy ground. It is whiter in colour, and the grain has the advantage of being too big for the beaks of the local rice-birds.

Two sorts of millet, two sorts of cassava, and benni-seed, or sesame, are cultivated. In the Koinadugu district, in the north-east of the Protectorate, ground-nuts are grown in large quantities, and their cultivation is spreading gradually southward.

Fruit is abundant. Various sorts of pineapple are indigenous and hardy; bananas, once planted, thrive and go on reproducing themselves; oranges and limes flourish on both laterite and alluvial soils. For years, from official and other quarters, the suggestion has been made that an export trade to Europe in fruit might be developed. This would need fast boats specially built. An agricultural authority in Sierra Leone wrote to the editor of *Tropical Life* :—

“ I wish you could make it known that limes thrive wonderfully well here; so much so that I am sure it would pay one of the big lime-juice-producing firms to start in a small way in Sierra Leone by opening up a factory to deal with the limes that are at present running to waste. I have seen better limes here than I saw in Dominica, which claims to be (and rightly so) the premier lime-growing centre in the West Indies.”

There are a good many other plants with which experiments have been or are being made. Cotton, for instance, which is grown in small and decreasing quantities for native weaving, was tried on a larger scale under the auspices of the British Cotton Growing Association, but without success, largely because of the withering effect of the *harmattan* wind. The Government tried to encourage the cultivation of the coconut palm, which is a universally useful tree, very responsive to a little human care, and apparently ready to flourish in Sierra Leone, even at some distance from the sea. The natives, however, could not be induced to take trouble about watering, and consequently the trees are not sufficiently numerous for commercial use. Lately the chiefs in the Sherbro country have made extensive cocoa plantations, but the climate is not quite so suitable as that of the Gold Coast. Bush tea, also known as the Sierra Leone fever plant (*Ocimum viride*), has lately roused interest as a possible source of thymol. The bush grows wild, and, in addition, almost every village has a few plants.

Horses, which are imported from French Guinea, do not do well on account of the tsetse, and an experiment made in the introduction of donkeys from the Gambia was not successful.

Small, red-brown cattle are bred in the northern parts of the Protectorate, in the Karina and Koinadugu districts. The natives, however, do not know much about the management of live-stock, and are hampered because the export of cows is forbidden from the neighbouring French territory. There are plenty of straight-haired sheep and small goats, which seem to thrive well. The fowls are small, and in 1914 the Government introduced large English birds in the hope of improving the size and getting more eggs. Very little success was met with at first, while the American pen system was in use, but open runs are now being tried, with better results.

(b) Methods of Cultivation

There is plenty of room for improvement in this respect. At present the native simply clears a space for his farm by cutting or burning the bush, prepares the ground by shallow hoeing, and abandons it to rest as soon as one year's crop has been taken. In 1912 an Agricultural Department was started, with an experimental farm at Jala, about six miles north of Mano in the Ronietta district. Here the chiefs are shown the improvements which may be effected by deep hoeing, green manuring, and the rotation of crops. Some of them have made frequent visits and shown keen interest. As early as 1908 a native, Mr. S. B. Thomas, bequeathed £60,000 for the foundation of an agricultural college. This was an indication that the educated natives were alive to the unscientific character of the methods generally used.

(c) Forestry

The Colony and Protectorate contain both the dense evergreen rain forest of the tropics, with trees of 100 ft. and more in height, and also the more open, park-like savannah forest, with grassland and

herbs, and trees whose height rarely exceeds 30 ft. The transition from the one to the other is, in this part of the world, abrupt, and there are none of the monsoon forests which elsewhere divide the two types.

The rain forest must, at one time, have covered the whole country, but a great deal has been destroyed by native farming, and it is now confined to the mountain ranges, the Ronietta, Railway, and Sherbro districts, and parts of Panguma and Konno. The savannahs are found in North Ronietta, North Panguma, North Konno, Koinadugu and Karina.

The forests were inspected and reported upon in 1909 and 1911. It was discovered that the rain forest was being rapidly reduced, and that in consequence valuable trees were disappearing, soil being washed from steep slopes, rivers becoming torrential, and the climate in danger of change. A Forest Department was therefore set up in 1912 to regulate the collection of produce and the cutting of timber, to constitute reserves at the request of the tribal authorities, and to administer the forests in the interests of the native population. The 73 square miles of forest in the peninsula have now been surveyed. A reservation of nearly 6,000 acres has been made on the Kassewe Hills; another has been begun in the Kambui Hills, and one was formed on the peninsula in 1916.

The Forest Report of 1909 stated that of the 138 species of timber trees found in the peninsula forest 14 were used locally, 12 of which were suitable for export. A native once made an attempt to export timber, and felled about 300 trees, but he did not square the logs, and the experiment was a failure. The time is probably not yet ripe for much to be done in this direction, for transport is difficult.

(d) Land Tenure

All land in the Colony belongs to the Crown, and may be held in fee simple, or occupied under squatters' licence at a nominal rent.

Land in the Protectorate belongs unreservedly and entirely to the people of the tribes, for whose benefit it is administered by the chiefs and their advisers. No chief can alienate land for his own advantage against the wishes of his people. He may, with their consent, grant leases of land for agricultural purposes, but these must have Government confirmation. Any individual in the tribe can, with his chief's consent, clear a piece of land for his own use and cultivate it. At his death the family may cultivate it for their common good or divide it among themselves.

(3) FISHERIES

Sierra Leone is well supplied with fish, for which there is a great demand.

"It is no uncommon thing," writes Mr. Alldridge, "to see the Sherbro waters about the port limits boiling over, as it were, with immense shoals of moving fish."

Only the most primitive methods of capture used to be employed, but recently a steam trawler has been introduced. Most of the fish is consumed locally, but some, after being dried and salted, is sold to tribes in the interior or sent to other West African ports. The commonest fish are the *bunga* (a kind of herring), skate, grey mullet, and tarpon.

(4) MINERALS

Iron ore and gold-bearing quartz exist in the Protectorate, but not in sufficient quantity to make it profitable to work them on a large scale. Plumbago is found in Sherbro and has been mined, but the enterprise was not a commercial success. There is clay suitable for fire-bricks and tiles, but the extent of the deposits is not known.

(5) MANUFACTURES

Country cloths used to be made from locally-grown cotton, and ornamented with beautiful indelible dyes in indigo blue, anatto brown, yellow, and black, with occasionally a little red added from wool unwound from comforters sent out from England. This industry, however, is dying out. One of the oldest native industries is the making of pottery out of a light grey clay found on the banks of some of the rivers. In some districts iron is smelted for local use, and made into knives, cutlasses and sticks.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

Principal Branches of Trade.—In this connection a clear distinction must be drawn between the Creoles, or Sierra Leoneans, who are descendants of the original settlers, and the native Africans of the Protectorate. The former are born traders, and buying and selling seems to be the only work to which they take naturally and kindly.

“The Sierra Leone woman,” says Mr. Alldridge, “has developed an extraordinary faculty for trading, which she hands on to her children, who begin business life as soon as they can toddle about with a little calabash containing perhaps a single pineapple or a few bananas on their woolly heads.”

So numerous are the competitors that many find it hard to make a living, and many well-wishers to the Colony have been anxious to direct the energies of the rising generation to mechanical or agricultural work. However, the railway has opened up fresh opportunities, of which the traders have taken full advantage.

“Up at Baiima,” wrote Mr. Alldridge in 1910, “they have come in such force that if their stores continue running up at the present rate the tops of the cuttings and the levels of this new extension will in time be one long trading street. . . . All along the line and feeder roads you meet them, not in dozens, but in hundreds.”

The native African, on the other hand, was in the past an agriculturist pure and simple, with no trading ambitions. Lately, however, in the more accessible parts of the Protectorate, he has been attracted to commerce to some extent. The number of hawkers' licences applied for has greatly increased, and natives as well as Creoles are among the applicants.

The most serious competitors with the Sierra Leoneans, however, are Syrian immigrants, who begin in a small way as peddlers of imitation coral and the like. Gradually, co-operating among themselves and saving where the Creole squandered, they have built up a remarkable position. They have captured practically the whole of the trade in kola nuts, for example, and form a wealthy and important element in the commercial life of the dependency.

Towns, Markets, &c.—The capital of the dependency is Freetown, a busy trading centre which in 1911 had a population of 34,090, and has had a municipal council since 1893. The Government has made large loans to the municipality for various public works, the most important being the establishment of a pure water supply. In some other respects Freetown compares unfavourably with towns in other parts of British West Africa. The red laterite used for building creates an irritating dust, many of the older houses have no verandahs or other shade, and the lighting is by kerosene lamps.

The second place in size and importance in the peninsula is Waterloo, a purely Creole town situated in the market-garden district south-east of Freetown.

The capital of the Sherbro district is Bonthe, a small, hot, overcrowded town on a narrow lagoon shut in by mangrove swamps.

Besides these three chief towns, markets and trading centres exist at Bo, Blama, Hangha, Baiima, and other points along the railway where feeder roads meet the line, and at Port Lokko in the north-west.

Organizations to Promote Trade.—A Chamber of Commerce has existed at Freetown since 1892. There

is also an organization known as the Kissi Road Traders' Association, so named from one of the most crowded business quarters of Freetown.

Foreign Interests.—Most of the firms in the colony are British, but the Société commerciale de l'Ouest africain and the Compagnie française de l'Afrique occidentale have houses at Freetown and Sherbro. A writer in *L'Exportateur français* in 1917 describes the Sierra Leone purchasers as "routiniers dans leurs goûts et habitudes et en général assez peu disposés à les modifier."

Beads have a great sale, and some years before the war an Austrian house opened a store in Freetown, now closed, to sell beads of their own manufacture. They were thus able to study local tastes on the spot, and meet them at a low price with goods of their own making. Bright colours, striking designs, and an abundant choice of patterns and samples are what are needed to tempt Sierra Leonean buyers.

(2) FOREIGN

(a) Exports

Quantities and Values.—The exports for the last five years were as follows:—

| Year. | Specie. | Other Exports. | Total. |
|-------|---------|----------------|-----------|
| | £ | £ | £ |
| 1912 | 190,582 | 1,350,172 | 1,540,754 |
| 1913 | 240,964 | 1,490,288 | 1,731,252 |
| 1914 | 208,571 | 1,041,907 | 1,250,478 |
| 1915 | 311,753 | 942,868 | 1,254,621 |
| 1916 | 48,998 | 1,174,546 | 1,223,544 |

A full table of the principal exports will be found in Appendix IV, p. 53, but the following notes may be made here.

Palm kernels far exceed in value all other articles

exported. For years the output had been increasing, until in 1913 kernels contributed £920,943, or 68 per cent., to the total of £1,376,603 derived from native produce. Their principal market was Germany, and of course disappeared on the outbreak of war. However, arrangements have now been made to absorb the output (see p. 38), and the trade has recovered. In 1916 the kernels exported had a value of £680,705. Margarine, in which oil expressed from palm kernels is an important ingredient, has come into general use during the war, and is likely in the future to be used in increased quantities. Thus the very cause which dealt the trade a blow in 1914 may in the end contribute to its expansion.

Next in importance comes the trade in kola nuts, which in 1913 brought in £328,003. The export of dried nuts is so small as to be negligible, but the fresh nuts have a large African market. This is affected, naturally, by the purchasing power of the natives of neighbouring colonies. In 1916, for instance, Senegal had a good ground-nut season in consequence of efforts made by the Government in distributing seed, whereupon the kola nut exports from Sierra Leone rose by 442 tons in quantity and £69,314 in value.

Palm oil comes third in order of importance, and in 1913 contributed 4.12 per cent. of the total. Most of this always went to the United Kingdom, and the markets have remained pretty steady since the outbreak of war, the percentage in 1916 being 4.87 per cent.

Ginger occupies an important place, but the export fluctuates because the native is always able to leave his roots in the ground in any year when the prices are not high enough to tempt him. In 1914 and 1915, when prices were low, the quantities exported dropped to 1,213 tons and 567 tons respectively. In 1916 the average price rose to £36 per cwt., nearly double the average for the preceding four years, and immediately the quantity exported rose from 567 tons to 971 tons, and the value from £8,091 to £25,814. Ginger, therefore, will always be a variable element in the exports.

Piassava is another article with a fluctuating export. In the years immediately preceding the war low prices ruled in the European markets, and the export was on the down-grade. After the outbreak of war, however, there was a sudden demand, and in January 1915 the price rose to £61 per ton. By the end of the year it had sunk to £23 per ton, but rose in April 1916 to £36 per ton, dropping to £26 again in December. A new impetus has been given to the trade since it has been discovered that piassava pulp, formerly regarded as a waste product, can be utilised as a substitute for coir.

Minor exports are hides, rice, gum copal, and rubber, which in 1913 brought in £4,249, £3,990, £2,682, and £1,292 respectively. Rubber used to figure more largely, but the export has been decreasing for years, partly because so many trees have been ruined by over-tapping, and partly because caravans which used to bring down rubber from the interior have gone to Konakri, in French Guinea, since the delimitation of boundaries.

Countries of Destination.—In normal times Germany was the principal customer of Sierra Leone for her chief product, palm kernels, and also for piassava. In 1913, 43,016 tons of the 49,201 tons of kernels exported went to Hamburg, which had a monopoly of the machinery used for the extraction of the oil. Germany also took 537 tons of the 839 tons of piassava exported. She thus occupied a commanding position, and was responsible for 47·49 per cent. of the total export trade.

The Imperial Institute, however, has now called the attention of British commercial circles to the possibilities of the kernel trade, and nut-crushing mills have been set up at Hull and Liverpool. In 1916 the kernels exported reached a total of 45,316 tons, a figure almost as high as the 49,201 tons of 1913. France took 3,103 tons, and all the rest went to Great Britain. In the same way, out of 883 tons of piassava exported, France took 59 tons and Great Britain all the rest. The United Kingdom had always been Sierra Leone's chief customer for palm-oil, taking 509,688 gallons in 1913 out of

a total of 617,089 gallons; but Germany took as much as 69,786 gallons. In 1916, out of 557,751 gallons exported, the United Kingdom took 406,516 gallons, and France more than filled Germany's place by taking 129,025 gallons. The United Kingdom has thus become responsible for 58·74 per cent. of the export trade, as against 13·29 per cent. in 1913. The change may have more than a temporary significance, and continue when German markets are again open.

The trade with West African countries, formerly second in importance to that with Germany, now ranks second to that with the United Kingdom.

In 1916 the United States for the first time occupied a prominent position in the export trade, taking more than 69 per cent. of the ginger shipped, whereas they had never before taken any.

It is believed in commercial circles that a wide market for West African products may be opened in America, and that the present direction of trade may in time be revolutionised.

A table showing the destination of exports in 1912, 1913, 1915, and 1916 will be found in Appendix IV, p. 54.

(b) Imports

Quantities and Values.—The total value of the imports for each of the last five years was as follows :—

| Year. | Specie. | Other Imports. | Total. |
|-------|---------|----------------|-----------|
| | £ | £ | £ |
| 1912 | 205,461 | 1,219,403 | 1,424,864 |
| 1913 | 312,268 | 1,438,035 | 1,750,303 |
| 1914 | 238,648 | 1,166,401 | 1,405,049 |
| 1915 | 175,724 | 1,080,031 | 1,255,755 |
| 1916 | 155,160 | 1,135,667 | 1,290,827 |

In 1913 the imports exceeded all previous records. This was not entirely due to the increase in Government imports for public work and railway construction,

but also to the increased buying powers of the Protectorate.

Cotton goods are the most notable import. In 1913 the piece goods imported amounted to £267,089 in value, cotton hosiery to £45,952, cotton lace to £5,557, cotton yarn to £7,431, and other cotton goods to £99,004. The total value, therefore, was £425,033, or 32 per cent. of the whole amount derived from commercial imports. Beads are largely imported. Boots and shoes, hats and caps, tobacco, soap, perfumery, jewellery, and confectionery are increasingly in request as European ways spread further in the Protectorate. There is a large cattle import by land, but no record of this has been kept since the Preventive Service was given up on the north-west frontier.

In Appendix V (*a*) and (*b*) will be found an analysis of the imports from 1912-1916, and a table of the principal imports in 1913 (see pp. 54, 55).

A large part of the population of Sierra Leone is Mohammedan, so that the importation of alcohol is not great, but, as the duties are heavy, it contributes largely to Customs receipts. In 1913 spirits represented 5·18 per cent. of the total imports, and contributed £167,491 out of the £315,742 derived from Customs duties. A table will be found in Appendix V (*c*), p. 55, showing the importation of spirits between 1912 and 1916, and also the importation of pure alcohol.

The importation of specie is always large, because the Freetown branch of the Bank of British West Africa is a distributing centre for practically the whole of West Africa. Much of the coin imported, therefore, never circulates in Sierra Leone at all, and the amount of the importation in any given year must not be taken as a guide to the financial condition of the colony. A table showing the net import will be found in Appendix V (*d*), p. 56.

Countries of Origin.—The United Kingdom normally stood first among the countries supplying Sierra Leone, and has improved her position relatively during the war, though on account of shipping difficulties the

actual volume of trade has shrunk. Thus in 1913 the United Kingdom supplied imports worth £1,138,683, or 65·06 per cent. of the whole; while in 1916, though the goods were valued only at £941,899, they represented a percentage of 72·97.

Germany in 1913 came next, contributing 9·95 per cent., or £174,191, and British West Africa third, with £163,158. The share of the United States, which in 1913 was £54,055, has now more than doubled, reaching in 1916 a total of £135,603.

Too much importance must not be attached to temporary readjustments due to the war, but in the case of America, at any rate, the upward tendency had begun before the removal of German competition, and will probably continue.

A table showing the origin of the goods imported in 1912, 1913, 1915, and 1916 will be found in Appendix V (*e*), p. 56.

(c) *Customs and Tariffs*

There are no export duties.

The import duties have been revised lately on several occasions, and the tariff in 1916 was as follows. Specific duties were charged on eleven articles. Among these were ale and porter (9*d.* per imperial gallon), turpentine and non-edible oils (7½*d.* per old wine gallon), tobacco (manufactured 3*s.* per lb., unmanufactured 1*s.* per lb.), wines (varying from 2*s.* 3*d.* to 5*s.* per gallon) and spirits. The duties on the last varied according to alcoholic strength, 7*s.* 6*d.* per imperial gallon being charged on those of a standard strength of 50 per cent. pure alcohol as ascertained by Tralles' alcoholmeter. Articles not specifically charged or specifically exempted were subject to an *ad valorem* duty of 15 per cent. Among the exemptions were Government stores; coal, coke, and patent fuel; machinery; motor vehicles; railway stock; agricultural implements, seed, and manures; West African produce; material for packing or preparing local produce; printing machines and printed matter; drugs, disinfectants, &c.

The Blue Book for 1913 shows that the total Customs revenue for that year, £317,463 2s. 3d., was made up as follows :—

| | | | | |
|----------------------------|-----|---------|----|----|
| (a) Direct— | | £ | s. | d. |
| Imports, <i>ad valorem</i> | ... | 67,492 | 5 | 8 |
| Imports, specific | ... | 247,383 | 4 | 2 |
| (b) Parcel mails— | | | | |
| Imports, <i>ad valorem</i> | ... | 2,501 | 0 | 7 |
| Imports, specific | ... | 86 | 11 | 10 |

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

The total revenue and expenditure for each year from 1912 to 1916 was as follows :—

| Year. | Revenue. | Expenditure. | Balance or Deficit. |
|-------|----------|--------------|---------------------|
| | £ | £ | £ |
| 1912 | 559,855 | 524,417 | + 35,438 |
| 1913 | 618,383 | 622,439 | — 4,056 |
| 1914 | 675,689 | 680,146 | — 4,457 |
| 1915 | 504,425 | 546,771 | — 42,346 |
| 1916 | 551,106 | 532,940 | + 18,166 |

It will be seen from these figures that expenditure has more than once exceeded revenue, and that, although the financial condition of the dependency is now sound, there is not a very wide margin. The funded debt at the end of 1916 amounted to £1,730,848; £81,028 stood to the credit of the Sinking Fund, so that the net liability of the Colony amounted to £1,649,820.

The revenue is mainly derived from Customs duties, from the Government railway, and from a hut tax of 5s. a year on each house with less than four rooms. The latter when first imposed excited much opposition, and was in many quarters believed to be the main reason of the terrible rising of 1898. It was part, however, of

the general reconstruction necessary when the Protectorate was formed and the railway planned. It is collected nowadays by the chiefs themselves without trouble.

The heads of revenue in 1913 were as follows:—

| | £ | s. | d. |
|--|---------|----|----|
| Customs | 317,463 | 2 | 3 |
| Government railway ... | 167,304 | 0 | 0 |
| Hut tax | 60,314 | 8 | 0 |
| Licences, &c. | 19,430 | 12 | 1 |
| Fees of Court, &c. ... | 17,853 | 2 | 6 |
| Post Office and Savings Bank | 14,486 | 17 | 10 |
| Interest | 12,323 | 15 | 9 |
| Port, harbour, and light-house dues | 6,937 | 11 | 3 |
| Miscellaneous | 1,820 | 19 | 4 |
| Rents on Government property | 416 | 18 | 1 |
| Land sales | 31 | 10 | 0 |

(2) *Currency*

The use of currency in parts of the country is quite recent. As late as 1899, when the chief of the Dama country was paid £5 or so in silver for rice supplied to the troops, he first of all objected, saying he would prefer tobacco; but afterwards stated that he was glad he took the money, because when melted down it made ornaments for his wives. In some remote parts of the Protectorate payment is made in strips of iron.

Coin, however, is now in general use. The special West African silver coinage was introduced in June 1913, with a view to superseding gradually Imperial silver currency. Certain foreign coins are also legal tender, notably the 5-franc piece of the Latin Union, whose value is fixed at 3s. 10½*d.*, though in 1916 its actual value fell to 3s. 5½*d.*, and its import was therefore prohibited. The £1 and 10s. currency notes issued in the United Kingdom are also legal tender, and were

supplemented in 1916 by West African currency notes of the same values, issued in Nigeria. The latter are not legal tender in Sierra Leone, but the Government undertakes to accept them in payment of dues.

(3) *Banking*

The Bank of British West Africa has branches at Freetown and Bonthe, and agencies in the Protectorate. A Government Savings Bank was established in 1882. The Colonial Bank has recently opened a branch at Freetown.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

Sierra Leone, the oldest of the West African Colonies, was for a long time the least progressive. The addition of the Protectorate in 1896 brought in healthier districts and a hard-working, if ignorant, population of native Africans, but there were anxious times while old and new were being welded into peaceable relationship. All the essential preliminaries to progress—easy transport, sanitary precautions, native education, and so forth—have been begun quite recently; and if, on the one hand, a wonderful amount has already been accomplished, it must also be admitted that the process is still incomplete.

Yet the present situation gives reasonable grounds for hopes of a prosperous future. The indigenous products of the country are valuable, while the fertile soil gives opportunity for supplementing them with planted crops. Organization, in the Agricultural and Forest Departments, exists to teach the inhabitants to make the most of them. Freetown is already a magnificent harbour, and will rank higher still when the improvements now in progress have been completed. European firms are alive to the openings in the dependency, and are extending their operations there. It is true that the biggest recent experiment tried, that of Lever Brothers

in the kernel industry, had to be abandoned; but that was rather because the time was not ripe and the native not ready than on account of any permanent obstacle in country or people. The revenue in 1893 was £92,769; in 1904, £240,472; in 1913, £618,383—an ascending scale which speaks for itself. The period of stagnation is over.

APPENDIX

I.—TREATIES

(a) *With France*.—Article I of the Convention between Great Britain and France of June 28, 1882,¹ provided :

“ The line of demarcation between the territories occupied or claimed by Great Britain and France respectively to the north of Sierra Leone, on the West Coast of Africa, shall be drawn between the basins of the Rivers Scarcies and Mellicourie (Mellakore).”

The exact line was to be determined by local inquiry.

“ The said line of demarcation shall, however, be drawn in such a manner as to ensure to Great Britain the complete control of the Scarcies Rivers and to France the complete control of the Mellicourie River.”

The island of Yelboyah (? Yellaboi) and all islands south of the line of demarcation were recognised as British; the island of Matakong and other islands north up to the Rio Nunez were recognised as French,

“ with the exception of the Iles de Los, which last-mentioned islands shall continue to belong to Great Britain.”

By Article V :

“ British subjects in the French possessions on the West Coast of Africa and French citizens in the British possessions of the West Coast of Africa shall receive equality of treatment with the citizens or subjects of France and Great Britain respectively as regards the protection of life and property.”

Article VII provided for the grant to British subjects in the French possessions and French subjects in the British possessions of the same rights as to holding real property as were granted to British subjects in France and French subjects in the United Kingdom.

The treaty, though never ratified, was assumed to be binding by both parties, but the delimitation proposed was not carried into effect.

¹ Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, ii, 724.

By Article II of the Agreement of August 10, 1889,¹ it was provided:

“ To the north of Sierra Leone, in accordance with the provisions of the treaty of 1882, the line of demarcation, after having divided the basin of the Mellicourie from that of the Great Scarries, shall pass between Bennah and Tambakka, leaving Talla to England and Tamisso to France, and shall approach the 10th degree of north latitude, leaving in the French zone the country of the Houbbous, and in the English zone Soulimaniah and Falabah. The line shall stop at the intersection of the 13th degree of longitude west of Paris (10° 40' W. of Greenwich) as marked on the French map, and of the 10th degree of latitude.”

Annex I² provided for the demarcation of the line by boundary commissioners, who were to

“ endeavour to find means of assuring to France a route of communication to the south of Fouta Djallon between Mellicourie and the French Soudan, which shall, however, in no way interfere with the possession by England of the road between Kambia and Falabah.”

Annex II repeated the terms of the treaty of 1882 as containing the principle on which the demarcation was to take place.

An Agreement of June 26, 1891,³ provided for the further delimitation of a line between the French and British spheres of influence to the south and west of the middle and upper Niger, to follow to the south the meridian 13° west of Paris (about 10° 40' west of Greenwich), subject to such variation as might be necessary in the opinion of the commissioners. From 10° N. lat. to Tembikundo the line was to follow the west of the heights on the left bank of the Niger shown in Monteil's map (Paris, 1886). If the watershed, however, were not as marked on that map, the commissioners were to

“ trace the frontier without regard to it, on the express understanding that both banks of the Niger shall remain in the sphere of French influence.”

This was further explained to mean that the line was to follow at a distance of 10 kilometres the left bank of the Djalibi, of the Fatiko, and finally of the Tembi, if necessary up to its source.

The actual delimitation of the line proved difficult, and had to be resettled by a fresh Agreement of January 21, 1895,⁴ fixing the boundary north and east of Sierra Leone. This was to run from

¹ Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, ii, 730.

² *Ibid.*, ii, 733.

³ *Ibid.*, ii, 744.

⁴ *Ibid.*, ii, 257.

the village of Kiragbe to the watershed of the Mellakore and Great Skarcies, along that watershed, along the Little Mola, and the Mola, to its junction with the Great Skarcies, along the River Kita, along the Little Skarcies, and finally along the Niger watershed to its intersection with the parallel of Tembikundo. This frontier was demarcated by boundary commissioners, whose results were expressed in a *procès-verbal* of April 9-30, 1896;¹ there remained however, one point of difference, the French claiming a portion of territory at Simitia. This claim was, however, withdrawn by notes exchanged on June 14 and 16, 1898,² and the demarcation was definitively accepted. The boundary to the east of Tembikundo was defined by an exchange of notes of January 22, 1895,³ as running along the parallel of latitude of Tembikundo from its point of intersection with the Niger watershed to its intersection with long. 13° west of Paris (10° 40' west of Greenwich) and then along that meridian to the Anglo-Liberian boundary. This boundary was marked out in 1900 and 1903, and defined by *procès-verbaux* of March 12, 1903,⁴ the results of which were approved by an exchange of notes of March 22—April 15, 1904.⁵ This agreement, however, was modified by an exchange of notes of July 6, 1911,⁶ under which the boundary from the source of the River Uldafu was to follow the *thalweg* of that river to its intersection with the Meli, the *thalweg* of the Meli to the Moa, the *thalweg* of the Moa to its intersection with long. 13°, the meridian to its intersection with the south bank of the Moa, and that bank to the meeting-place of the boundaries of French Guinea and Liberia and Sierra Leone and Liberia. The exact line was marked out by a boundary commission and finally approved by an agreement of September 4, 1913,⁷ which expressly provided that the results of the delimitation were not to be varied if any error were subsequently discovered in the fixing of long. 13°.

A further exchange of notes of January 22, 1895,⁸ provided for the free use of roads by traders and travellers between French Guinea, the French Sudan, and Sierra Leone, and forbade the levying, along the frontiers laid down by the treaty of January 21, 1895, of export and import duties higher than those levied on the maritime frontiers of French Guinea and Sierra Leone, and the levying in any case of export duties exceeding 7 per cent. *ad*

¹ Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, ii, 765.

² *Ibid.*, ii, 794.

³ *Ibid.*, ii, 761.

⁴ *Ibid.*, ii, 809.

⁵ *Ibid.*, ii, 1815.

⁶ Cd. 6101.

⁷ Cd. 7147.

⁸ Hertslet, ii,

valorem. By Article VI of the Convention of April 8, 1904,¹ the Iles de Los were ceded to France.

(b) *With Liberia*.—By Article II of a Treaty of November 11, 1885,² it was provided :

“ The line marking the north-western boundary of the Republic of Liberia shall commence at the point on the sea coast at which, at low water, the line of the south-eastern or left bank of the Mannah River intersects the general line of the sea coast, and shall be continued along the line marked by low water, on the south-eastern or left bank of the Mannah River until such line, or such line prolonged in a north-easterly direction, intersects the line or the prolongation of the line making the north-eastern or inland boundary of the territories of the Republic, with such deviations as may hereafter be found necessary to place within Liberian territory the town of Boporu, and such other towns as shall be hereafter acknowledged to have belonged to the Republic at the time of the signing of this Convention.”

The line was marked out by a commission whose results were embodied in a *procès-verbal* of June 25, 1903.³ This result was, however, altered by a Convention of January 21, 1911,⁴ so as to secure a boundary following the *thalweg* of the Mo, Maia, Makowi (Magoi) and Mauwa Rivers to the intersection of the latter by the provisional boundary of 1903, then that line to the Morro River, the *thalweg* of that river to the Mano (Mannah) River, and then the provisional boundary. Liberia was granted £4,000 as compensation for the less developed condition of the lands acquired by her between the Morro and Mano Rivers in comparison with that of the lands ceded by her. By an Agreement of April 10, 1913,⁵ facilities for Liberian vessels to navigate the River Mano (Mannah) were accorded. The actual boundary as laid down by the Treaty of 1911 was delimited by a commission in 1913-14, and their results, which dealt with the line from the Moa to the Magowi (Makowi), were accepted by an exchange of notes on June 19-26, 1917.⁶

¹ *Ibid.*, ii, 817.

² *Ibid.*, iii, 1132.

³ *Ibid.*, iii, 1136.

⁴ Cd. 5719.

⁵ Cd. 6803.

⁶ Cd. 8589.

II.—REVENUE AND WORKING EXPENSES OF THE GOVERNMENT RAILWAY, 1907-1916¹

| Year. | Revenue. | | | Working Expenses. | | |
|-------|----------|----|----|-------------------|----|----|
| | £ | s. | d. | £ | s. | d. |
| 1907 | 74,515 | 0 | 2 | 61,312 | 18 | 10 |
| 1908 | 71,499 | 9 | 3 | 65,273 | 9 | 7 |
| 1909 | 84,228 | 14 | 7 | 68,222 | 14 | 11 |
| 1910 | 101,567 | 2 | 11 | 66,750 | 13 | 10 |
| 1911 | 107,319 | 19 | 7 | 69,503 | 5 | 5 |
| 1912 | 142,146 | 14 | 11 | 75,706 | 10 | 7 |
| 1913 | 167,661 | 17 | 1 | 89,153 | 3 | 10 |
| 1914 | 143,250 | 8 | 1 | 100,154 | 5 | 5½ |
| 1915 | 146,150 | 14 | 6½ | 107,190 | 0 | 0½ |
| 1916 | 156,428 | 19 | 4 | 127,466 | 4 | 0 |

III.—SHIPPING

(a) *Number and Tonnage of Vessels Entered and Cleared at the Chief Ports in 1912 and 1913²*

| Port. | Entered. | | | | Cleared. | | | |
|----------------|----------|-----------|-------|-----------|----------|-----------|-------|-----------|
| | 1912. | | 1913. | | 1912. | | 1913. | |
| | No. | Tons. | No. | Tons. | No. | Tons. | No. | Tons. |
| Freetown .. | 682 | 1,297,889 | 713 | 1,422,789 | 656 | 1,258,282 | 678 | 1,367,909 |
| Sherbro .. | 1 | 22 | 1 | 1,621 | 28 | 47,246 | 36 | 61,737 |
| Mano Sulija .. | 28 | 32,274 | 28 | 30,771 | 8 | 7,237 | 12 | 7,364 |
| Sulima .. | 3 | 4,412 | 5 | 7,416 | 19 | 26,006 | 20 | 29,444 |
| Mahela .. | 343 | 1,489 | 240 | 962 | 359 | 1,546 | 250 | 1,029 |
| Gene .. | 6 | 34 | 6 | 43 | 6 | 34 | — | — |
| Total .. | 1,063 | 1,336,120 | 993 | 1,463,602 | 1,076 | 1,340,351 | 996 | 1,467,483 |

¹ From the Administrative Report of the Railway, 1916.

² From the Report for 1913 of the Comptroller of Customs on Revenue, Trade, and Shipping.

(b) *Vessels Entered, 1912-1916*¹

| Year. | Steam Vessels. | | Sailing Vessels. | |
|-------|----------------|-----------|------------------|-------|
| | No. | Tons. | No. | Tons. |
| 1912 | 666 | 1,331,719 | 397 | 4,401 |
| 1913 | 702 | 1,460,197 | 291 | 3,405 |
| 1914 | 638 | 1,391,445 | 260 | 7,263 |
| 1915 | 337 | 800,659 | 232 | 8,746 |
| 1916 | 348 | 775,449 | 51 | 2,273 |

(c) *Nationality and Tonnage of Vessels Entered in 1912, 1913, 1915, 1916*

| Nationality. | 1912. | | 1913. | | 1915. | | 1916. | |
|--------------|-------|---------|-------|-----------|-------|---------|-------|---------|
| | No. | Tons. | No. | Tons. | No. | Tons. | No. | Tons. |
| American .. | 1 | 609 | — | — | 3 | 2,021 | 2 | 1,561 |
| Belgian .. | 3 | 13,400 | — | — | 5 | 23,564 | 9 | 42,358 |
| British .. | 728 | 933,537 | 686 | 1,025,591 | 448 | 762,066 | 322 | 703,959 |
| Danish .. | 4 | 3,376 | 5 | 4,661 | — | — | — | — |
| Dutch .. | — | — | 3 | 887 | 2 | 3,359 | — | — |
| French .. | 134 | 5,285 | 84 | 8,885 | 100 | 10,958 | 52 | 24,919 |
| German .. | 176 | 367,226 | 191 | 406,811 | — | — | — | — |
| Greek .. | 4 | 5,024 | 5 | 6,773 | 3 | 3,729 | — | — |
| Italian .. | — | — | 1 | 2,221 | — | — | — | — |
| Liberian .. | 1 | 5 | 6 | 53 | — | — | — | — |
| Norwegian | 8 | 4,562 | 8 | 4,208 | 3 | 4,008 | 5 | 1,715 |
| Portuguese | 2 | 58 | 2 | 56 | 8 | 1,242 | 6 | 124 |
| Spanish .. | 2 | 3,038 | 2 | 3,456 | 3 | 5,756 | — | — |
| Swedish .. | — | — | — | — | 2 | 2,021 | 1 | 954 |

¹ Figures for all tables in this Appendix are taken from the Reports of the Comptroller of Customs, 1913 and 1916.

(d) *Principal Lines of Steamers Trading with Sierra Leone in 1912 and 1913*

| Line. | 1912. | | 1913. | |
|---|-------|-----------|-------|-----------|
| | No. | Tons. | No. | Tons. |
| British and African Steam Navigation Company, Limited | 176 | 341,621 | 207 | 436,672 |
| African Steamship Company .. | 128 | 304,328 | 119 | 308,970 |
| Elder Line, Limited .. | 100 | 220,400 | 98 | 212,729 |
| Imperial Direct Company, Limited .. | 9 | 22,224 | 6 | 14,364 |
| Woermann Linie | 123 | 260,714 | 149 | 323,015 |
| Hamburg-Amerika Linie .. | 23 | 50,509 | 27 | 59,137 |
| Hamburg-Bremer-Afrika Linie .. | 21 | 42,582 | 13 | 25,905 |
| Jo. Holt & Company .. | 13 | 10,598 | 8 | 6,678 |
| Compagnie Belge Maritime du Congo .. | 3 | 13,400 | — | — |
| Couppa Brothers | 4 | 5,024 | 5 | 6,773 |
| Eastern Telegraph Company .. | 12 | 5,494 | 11 | 2,420 |
| Elder, Dempster, & Company, Limited | — | — | 7 | 16,034 |
| Miscellaneous | 54 | 54,825 | 52 | 47,500 |
| Total | 666 | 1,331,719 | 702 | 1,460,197 |

IV.—EXPORTS

(a) *Value of Exports (excluding Specie), 1912-1916*

| Year. | Produce and Manufactures of the Colony. | British, Foreign, and other Colonial Produce and Manufactures. | Total. |
|-------|---|--|-----------|
| | £ | £ | £ |
| 1912 | 1,222,946 | 127,226 | 1,350,172 |
| 1913 | 1,376,603 | 113,685 | 1,490,288 |
| 1914 | 933,384 | 108,523 | 1,041,907 |
| 1915 | 852,751 | 90,117 | 942,868 |
| 1916 | 1,101,846 | 72,700 | 1,174,546 |

(b) Quantities and Values of Principal Exports, 1912-1916

| Articles of Export. | 1912. | | 1913. | | 1914. | |
|-------------------------|-----------|---------|-----------|---------|-----------|---------|
| | Quantity. | Value. | Quantity. | Value | Quantity. | Value. |
| | | £ | | £ | | £ |
| Palm Kernels... .. tons | 50,751 | 793,178 | 49,201 | 920,943 | 36,915 | 559,313 |
| Kola Nuts " | 1,652 | 276,530 | 1,865 | 328,003 | 1,925 | 279,199 |
| Palm Oil gallons | 728,509 | 67,314 | 617,089 | 56,659 | 436,144 | 38,537 |
| Ginger tons | 2,200 | 44,864 | 2,047 | 35,468 | 1,213 | 15,639 |
| Hides leaves | 10,247 | 4,041 | 9,789 | 4,249 | 10,561 | 4,782 |
| Rice bushels | 30,715 | 5,713 | 21,546 | 3,990 | 18,705 | 4,855 |
| Gum Copal tons | 17 | 1,607 | 24 | 2,682 | 16 | 3,075 |
| Rubber " | 10 | 2,962 | 6 | 1,262 | 3 | 364 |
| | | | | | | |
| | 1915. | | 1916. | | | |
| | Quantity. | Value. | Quantity. | Value. | | |
| | | £ | | £ | | |
| Palm Kernels... .. tons | 39,624 | 504,033 | 45,316 | 680,705 | | |
| Kola Nuts " | 2,042 | 233,406 | 2,484 | 302,720 | | |
| Palm Oil gallons | 481,576 | 45,671 | 557,751 | 53,622 | | |
| Ginger tons | 567 | 8,091 | 971 | 25,814 | | |
| Hides leaves | 11,564 | 5,554 | 14,989 | 6,396 | | |
| Rice bushels | 21,600 | 7,228 | 3,192 | 1,364 | | |
| Gum Copal tons | ... | ... | ... | ... | | |
| Rubber " | 1 | 40 | 10 | 1,848 | | |

(c) Percentage of Values of Principal Products to Total Exports

| Products. | 1912. | 1913. | 1914. | 1915. | 1916. |
|-----------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Palm Kernels .. | 64·86 | 66·90 | 59·92 | 59·08 | 61·78 |
| Kola Nuts. . | 22·61 | 23·83 | 29·91 | 7·61 | 27·47 |
| Palm Oil .. | 5·50 | 4·12 | 4·13 | 5·36 | 4·87 |
| Ginger .. | 3·67 | 2·58 | 1·68 | ·95 | 2·34 |
| Hides .. | ·33 | ·31 | ·51 | ·65 | ·57 |
| Rice .. | ·47 | ·29 | ·52 | ·85 | ·12 |
| Gum Copal .. | ·13 | ·19 | ·33 | .. | .. |
| Rubber .. | ·24 | ·09 | ·04 | .. | ·17 |

(d) *Destination of Exports (including Specie) in the Years 1912, 1913, 1915, 1916*

| Country. | 1912. | 1913. | 1915. | 1916. |
|-----------------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| United Kingdom .. | 272,735 | 230,091 | 657,297 | 718,656 |
| British West Africa .. | 219,734 | 253,882 | 292,472 | 182,815 |
| Other British Possessions.. | — | — | — | 30 |
| France | 969 | 200 | 11,347 | 60,441 |
| Germany | 674,516 | 822,155 | — | — |
| High Seas | 107,011 | 100,393 | 66,229 | 37,777 |
| Holland | — | — | — | — |
| United States | 4 | — | 14 | 17,372 |
| Foreign West Africa .. | 265,682 | 324,418 | 226,471 | 204,587 |
| Other European Countries | — | — | — | 19 |
| Other Countries.. .. | 103 | 113 | 791 | 1,847 |
| Total | 1,540,754 | 1,731,252 | 1,254,621 | 1,223,544 |

V.—IMPORTS

(a) *Analysis of Imports, 1912-1916¹*

| Year. | Food and drink. | Tobacco. | Raw articles, or articles mainly unmanufactured. | Articles wholly or partially manufactured. | Miscellaneous. | Specie. | Total imports. |
|-------|-----------------|----------|--|--|----------------|---------|----------------|
| | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| 1912 | 250,782 | 70,296 | 113,826 | 784,310 | 189 | 205,461 | 1,424,864 |
| 1913 | 279,211 | 75,277 | 103,680 | 979,449 | 418 | 312,268 | 1,750,303 |
| 1914 | 206,259 | 62,568 | 127,543 | 769,952 | 79 | 238,548 | 1,405,049 |
| 1915 | 254,766 | 76,961 | 111,584 | 636,619 | 101 | 175,724 | 1,255,755 |
| 1916 | 264,993 | 90,209 | 94,512 | 685,675 | 278 | 155,160 | 1,290,827 |

¹ From the Report of the Comptroller of Customs, 1916.

(b) *Principal Commercial Imports, 1913¹*

| <i>Article</i> | <i>£</i> |
|---------------------------------|-------------------|
| Cotton goods | 425,033 |
| Foodstuffs | 146,357 |
| Wines and spirits | 101,537 |
| Tobacco | 75,277 |
| Iron goods | 50,890 |
| Coal and fuel | 48,854 |
| Clothing, boots, &c. | 41,300 |
| Boats, launches, &c. | 33,628 |
| Hardware, glass, cutlery | 30,587 |
| Telegraphic materials | 22,643 |
| Lumber | 22,355 |
| Bags | 21,397 |
| Woollen goods | 19,983 |
| Miscellaneous | 252,141 |
| Total | £1,291,982 |

(c) *Importation of Spirits, 1912-1916²*

| <i>Year.</i> | <i>Gallons.</i> | <i>Percentage to total imports.</i> | <i>Imports in gallons at 100° Tralles.</i> |
|--------------|-----------------|---|--|
| 1912 | 626,061 | 6·29 | 288,022 |
| 1913 | 632,087 | 5·18 | 275,464 |
| 1914 | 322,836 | 3·26 | 134,909 |
| 1915 | 295,489 | 4·47 | 128,485 |
| 1916 | 154,478 | 3·60 | 70,261 |

¹ From the Report of the Comptroller of Customs, 1913.² From the Annual Reports, 1915 and 1916.

(d) Export and Import of Specie, 1912-1916¹

| Year. | Specie Imported. | Specie Exported. | Net Import or Export. |
|-------|------------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| | £ | £ | £ |
| 1912 | 205,461 | 190,582 | 14,879 |
| 1913 | 312,268 | 240,964 | 71,304 |
| 1914 | 238,648 | 208,571 | 30,077 |
| 1915 | 175,724 | 311,753 | 136,029 |
| 1916 | 155,160 | 48,998 | 106,162 |

(e) Countries of Origin, 1912, 1913, 1915, 1916¹

| Country. | 1912. | 1913. | 1915. | 1916. |
|---------------------------|---------|-----------|---------------------|--------------------|
| | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| United Kingdom .. | 912,014 | 1,138,683 | 870,901 | 941,899 |
| British West Africa .. | 130,247 | 163,158 | 73,167 | 88,584 |
| Other British Possessions | 123 | 60 | 4,286 | 692 |
| France | 13,811 | 18,139 | 21,994 | 24,181 |
| Germany | 166,671 | 174,191 | 13,210 ² | 2,008 ² |
| Holland | 81,262 | 89,634 | 55,333 | 37,517 |
| United States | 28,463 | 54,055 | 102,435 | 135,603 |
| Foreign West Africa .. | 32,685 | 31,756 | 96,932 | 47,657 |
| Other European Countries | 3,716 | 7,842 | 1,509 | 1,933 |
| Other Countries .. | 55,872 | 72,785 | 15,988 | 10,753 |

¹ From the Reports of the Comptroller of Customs, 1913 and 1916.

² Prize cargo.

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There are also six sheets of North-West Sierra Leone on the scale of 1:125,000 (G.S.G.S. 2469, 1910), prepared from a map by Dr. J. C. Maxwell, District Commissioner. Three of these sheets cover the area not yet published on the 1:250,000 scale.

There is a map of the Sierra Leone Peninsula on the scale of 1:63,360, or one inch to a mile (G.S.G.S. 2459, corrected to 1913); and an enlargement of this on the scale of 1:21,120, or 3 inches to a mile (G.S.G.S. 2404, 1908), showing Freetown alone.

GOLD COAST

LONDON:
PUBLISHED BY H.M. STATIONERY OFFICE

1920

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

The territory of the Gold Coast lies on the Gulf of Guinea, between Togoland on the east and the Ivory Coast on the west, and stretches inland for about 300 miles to the southern frontier of Upper Senegal and Niger. It is roughly rectangular, measuring over 300 miles along the coast and about 180 miles along its northern frontier. Its total area is about 79,000 square miles, comprising the Gold Coast Colony (24,000 square miles), the Ashanti Colony (24,000 square miles), and the Northern Territories Protectorate (31,000 square miles). Its extreme limits are latitudes $4^{\circ} 44'$ and $11^{\circ} 10'$ north, and longitudes $1^{\circ} 12'$ and $3^{\circ} 14'$ west.

The northern frontier, starting from the Black Volta, runs practically straight along the eleventh parallel of north latitude as far as the Red Volta, where it makes a dip to the south, and then follows an irregular line to a point 8 miles north-east of Bawku. The eastern frontier¹, marching with Togoland, has a general south-easterly direction, and over a large part of its course follows first the Daka and then the Volta, but turns abruptly eastward some 30 miles north of the coast, so as to include the districts of Adda and Kwitta. The western frontier follows the Black Volta to about 15 miles south of latitude 9° north, and thenceforward is a

¹ Described in detail in *Togoland*, No. 110 of this series.

demarcated line, trending generally south-south-west, but turning eastward in the last part of its course, and reaching the sea by the lower course of the Tano River. The demarcation of all these frontiers, except one small section of the eastern boundary between $6^{\circ} 10'$ and $6^{\circ} 20'$ north latitude, was completed in 1903-4. Efforts were made to ascertain and follow tribal limits, but the choice of the Daka as part of the eastern boundary cut the Dagomba territory in two, and left its capital in Togoland. Some rectification may be advisable at this point.

(2) SURFACE, COAST, AND RIVER SYSTEM

Surface.—The territory is divided into two parts by the Black Volta, which, in its middle course, crosses it from west to east. To the north of this line is the Northern Territories Protectorate; to the south, Ashanti and the Gold Coast Colony.

The *Northern Territories plateau* is a sandstone country, with granite and quartz in the north, and a good deal of ironstone and laterite elsewhere. It consists of undulating savannah country, rising gradually towards the north from the narrow valley of the Black Volta. A scarp, with a steep drop to the north, runs across the plateau south-westward from a few miles north of Gambaga in the north-east to Bungweli and perhaps beyond. On the north side of this scarp there is broken rising ground diversified by the Sapari, Nabrigo, and other hills, which rise from 100 to 500 ft. above the general level of the surface (about 1,000 ft.). Most of the plateau lies in the basin of the White Volta, the rest of it in the basins of the Black Volta in the west and the Daka in the east.

There are few large tributaries of the main rivers; nor, between January and March or April do they all contain running water throughout their courses; while the swamps and minor streams are completely dry. Moreover, there is a scarcity of sub-surface water.

The whole tract, therefore, may be described as arid for at least one-third of the year. The cultivated areas, which are mostly in the north, are comparatively small in extent, and all the rest of the country is covered by grasses, except for a few narrow belts of monsoon forest.

The *eastern plains of Ashanti and the Colony* are a savannah forest country with characteristics similar to those of the Northern Territories plateau, except that their general level is about 500 ft. lower, their surface is less undulating and more hilly, and they are more thickly wooded and are much better watered and moister. In the north-west they merge into the savannah plateau of north-west Ashanti, and in the south-east they are crossed by the eastern end of the Akwapim and Akropong (Krobo) range of hills.

The coastal area, east of Appam, consists of undulating savannah plains, 3 to 20 miles wide. In the extreme south-east there is a series of brackish lagoons, separated from the sea by narrow stretches of sand. These eastern plains are watered by numerous streams, most of them perennial, but others dry for part of the year. There are some large stretches of almost pure grass land, but in general the tree-growth is much denser and finer than in the northern plateau. Along most of the rivers and streams are belts of monsoon forest. The soil is rich and deep in most places.

The *western plain of Ashanti and the Colony* is of an entirely different type. It is densely wooded, is well-watered by innumerable rivers and streams, between which rise ranges of hills, often of considerable height, and has moist, fertile soil, well suited for agriculture. The chief rivers in this region have a general direction from north to south and fall into the ocean. The whole country contains many small marshes, and parts of it are flooded to some extent for short periods during the rainy season. There is only one lake, that of Bosumtwi, south-east of Kumasi in the Moinsi Hills. This lake, which is

4½ miles long and 4 miles broad, is situated at an altitude of about 600 ft., and is entirely surrounded by steep hills rising 500 to 600 ft. above its surface. Between the western frontier and Axim the coastal area is occupied by swampy country for a depth of about 20 miles; east of Axim and as far as Apam is a strip of plain, a few miles wide, which is elevated in places to 200 ft. above sea level, and breaks into low ridges and hills covered with an evergreen scrub forest 8 to 20 ft. high. The greater part of these western plains is covered with dense, high forests, interspersed in places with swamp forests and also with secondary forests which have sprung up on lands that have gone out of cultivation. The soil, which consists largely of loam derived from the decomposition of granitoid rocks, is fertile and moist.

The *mountainous tract* dividing the eastern from the western plains of the Colony and Ashanti runs from near Kintampo in the north-west to near Accra in the south-east, forming the western watershed of the lower course of the Black Volta River and of the Volta River. It consists of a series of mountain groups. As a rule the ranges are narrow, but in the Kwahu region, and perhaps elsewhere, there is a broken plateau some 15 miles wide. The land is well-watered and the soil moist and fertile.

Coast.—The coast line, which is about 340 miles in length, runs east-south-east from the French frontier in the west to Cape Three Points; thence it turns east-north-east and continues in that direction as far as the Togoland frontier. In the extreme east and west there are sand-spits enclosing large lagoons bordered by mangrove forests, and there are a few smaller lagoons at other points; but with these exceptions the coast consists of a low sandy beach varied by small bays and rocky headlands, near which are rocks and shoals. The headlands occur chiefly between the Ankobra River and Appam.

River System.—The most remarkable river is the Black Volta, which, after it has been joined by the

White Volta, is called simply the Volta. Its course of 700 miles falls naturally into three portions. In the first it flows south, forming the western frontier, from the north-western corner of the Northern Territories Protectorate to the rapids of Aderoso. Here it turns south-eastward, and by a winding course, forming the southern boundary of the Protectorate, crosses the country to the confluence of the Daka River on the eastern frontier. From this point the stream turns south again to the sea, and for most of the way forms the eastern boundary of Ashanti and the Colony. In the first section there are no large tributaries, though there are innumerable water-courses draining swampy land. In the middle section the Lora Mole or Mambili, the White Volta and the Daka flow in from the north, and the Pru from the south. The biggest of these rivers is the White Volta, which is fed by the Red Volta and the Sissili (with its tributaries the Kulpawn and the Pulundel) on the right bank, and the Kudani or Nasia and the Lafi on the left. The White Volta enters the Protectorate in the extreme north-east, and flows for 300 miles before it joins the Black Volta. In the third section of the main stream the chief tributaries are the Beresu, the Obosom and the Afram.

The chief rivers of the western plains, flowing from north to south, are as follows, named from west to east: The Bia rises not far north of the seventh parallel, and flows for about a degree of latitude through Ashanti and the Colony before turning westward into French territory. The Tano rises near Kintampo, and flows entirely through British territory till it falls into the Tendo lagoon. The Ankobra is fed by two large tributaries, the Mansi and the Bonsa, and enters the sea near Axim. The Pra rises among the hills of Kwahu, and has as feeders the three important streams of the Anum, the Ofin (with its tributaries the Adra and the Jim), and the Birrim. Among the numerous small rivers east of the Pra the only ones which need be mentioned are the Nakwa, the Ayen, and the Den.

(3) CLIMATE

The most noticeable feature of the climate is its great humidity. So far as is known, this ranges between 77 and 86 per cent. over most of the country, except in the Northern Territories, where it is probably a good deal lower. Gambaga in six consecutive years had a mean of 60·9.

Rain-laden monsoon winds from the south-west and west prevail from March to October inclusive. They are then replaced by the *harmattan*, a dry, north-easterly wind accompanied by a dust-haze, which is first felt in the Northern Territories, reaches Ashanti in December, and the coast still later. On the coast it is comparatively light, and markedly less dry than in the interior. In March, after the cessation of this wind, the wet season opens with tornadoes and winds from the south-west, bringing the rains to the coast.

From the point of view of rainfall, the territory falls into three zones. The southern zone includes the whole of the Colony, and as much of Ashanti as lies to the south of a line drawn east and west through Kumasi. Here the maximum fall occurs in June; there is a break in July and August, but the rains increase again in November to December, when the dry season begins; it lasts till the end of February. The total annual fall in this zone is 54·3 in. (1,379 mm.), of which one-tenth falls during the so-called dry season. The fall is unevenly distributed, the western coastal area receiving 80·1 in. (2,036 mm.), while the eastern coastal area gets only 30·9 in. (786 mm.). This is due to the northerly trend of the coast east of Cape Three Points.

The intermediate zone includes that portion of Ashanti between a line drawn through Kumasi on the south and the Black Volta River on the north. Here there is considerable rain in March, little in July and August, and the maximum fall is in September. The total annual

fall is 55·9 in. (1,420 mm.), of which about one-seventh falls in the winter months.

The northern zone, beyond the Black Volta, has a relatively light rainfall in March, which increases till it reaches its maximum in August and September. In October the fall is only about one-third that of September; in November it is very light. The total annual fall is 45 in. (1,143 mm.), of which one-twentieth only falls during the dry winter months.

Not much information is available concerning the temperature, although some details are known which were obtained at 12 observing stations during periods varying from 3 to 14 years. The mean annual temperature varies between 78·5° F. (25·8° C.) at Accra on the coast to 81·5° F. (27·5° C.) at Gambaga in the Northern Territories. The hottest month is March or April, and the coolest July or August. The mean monthly maximum temperature varies from 87·2° F. (30·7° C.) at Cape Coast to 96·2° F. (35·7° C.) at Gambaga, and the mean monthly minimum from 69·4° F. (20·8° C.) at Kumasi to 74·4° F. (23·5° C.) at Kwitta on the coast. The daily range is small throughout the country. It increases towards the interior and is greatest when the *harmattan* is blowing, at which time the nights are cold in the hilly country and in the Northern Territories.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The moist, hot climate undoubtedly makes the Colony and Ashanti unhealthy for Europeans. Between 1891 and 1903 the average annual death-rate is said to have been 42 per thousand, but since then the rate has been greatly reduced by preventive and curative measures. The disease from which Europeans suffer most is malaria and its sequelae, but yellow fever is said to be more dangerous to them. The Northern Territories, being drier, are markedly less unhealthy than the rest of the country, and the

malaria prevalent there is of a mild type; on the other hand, diseases of the respiratory organs are common, owing to the cold nights during the period of the *harmattan* in the winter months.

Among the natives the most common maladies are dysentery, malaria, rheumatism, diseases of the eyes and respiratory organs, and skin and parasitic diseases. Smallpox is endemic, but it is generally of a mild type, and no severe epidemics have been recorded for many years. Sleeping sickness occurs in chronic endemic forms in the Colony and Ashanti, but is hardly known in the Northern Territories, except in the Southern Province. Cases of yellow fever are reported frequently, but no epidemic of it has occurred for the last 20 years; on the other hand, in 1906-8 there was a bad outbreak of cerebro-spinal meningitis in the Northern Territories which caused no fewer than 10,000 deaths in 1907 alone. There was a bad epidemic of anthrax in 1913, believed to have been imported from the Moshi country in French Upper Senegal. Nothing appears to have been recorded concerning native methods of dealing with diseases, and nothing is known about their efficacy; it is said that infant mortality is unusually heavy owing to malnutrition. Hygienic measures, such as the destruction of mosquito breeding-places, are said to be producing good results.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

In the Gold Coast Colony and its Dependencies there are more than 50 different tribes (or political communities speaking one language or dialect, and acknowledging one head). Those living in the Colony and Ashanti are pure negroes, while those found in the Northern Territories are of negroid stock. Also, throughout the country, but especially in the north, there are many large colonies of Negro Hausas, and a few small ones of Hamitic Fulas.

Most of the inhabitants of the forest country of the Colony and Ashanti are Chi-speaking negroes who, according to their traditions, used to be a pastoral people living to the north and west of their present territory; they were driven thence by invaders from the north, and, entering the forest region, at that time little inhabited, became agriculturists, pressed onwards to the coast and dispossessed the Ewe-speaking aboriginal tribes who dwelt there. Of these Ewe tribes, or of mixed Ewe and Chi tribes, or of mixed Ewe and aboriginal tribes, there now are the Ahanta, the Chama (Elmina), and the Amanahia (Appolonia) in the west, and in the east the Ga (Accra), Krobo, Andangme, Awuma, Agbosome, Afflao, and several others of lesser importance. Of the Chi-speaking tribes the most important in the Colony are the Sefwi and Wassaw in the west; the Denkyira, Fanti (Mankesem) and Assin in the centre, and the Akim and Akwapim in the east; while in Ashanti are the Adansi, the Amansi, the Nkoranza, and the Kumasi. The chief negroid tribes in the Northern Territories are the Mamprusi, Dagomba and Gonja in the east; the Wala, Lobi and Dargati in the west; and the Kussassi, Fra-Fra and Kanjarga in the north.

It is an open question whether there is racial affinity between these negroid tribes or not; the languages they speak differ greatly from one another, but whether the differences are basic or dialectal is disputed. One authority holds that in character, habits, and physiognomy the tribes are so similar that probably they are members of a single though much dispersed race; while others, basing their views on linguistic differences, hold them to belong to entirely distinct races. The latter view must be open to suspicion in the present state of our knowledge. So little is known about their language that, whereas one authority identifies 10 distinct languages, another says there are only 4, while a third differs absolutely from both these as to the classification and origin of the languages.

It is certain that the dialects in use are so diverse that, in many cases, the inhabitants of neighbouring villages cannot understand one another. Throughout the Northern Territories Hausa is becoming a *lingua franca*, and is understood by one or more people in most villages, and to a lesser extent the same is true of Ashanti. In the Colony and Ashanti the great diversity of language is not found, although there are many dialects, and it is said that the Fanti dialect of the Chi language is understood everywhere except in the Ewe districts. Here again, however, it must be remarked that the study of the languages is so incomplete that whereas some authorities describe all Chi languages as Akan, others divide them into Akan and Fanti, and others into Fanti and Ashanti.

(6) POPULATION

Distribution.—The total population of the country according to the census of 1911 was over 1,500,000, but this figure, owing to defects in the enumeration, is admittedly rather too low; of the total, 1,687 were white people. The population was distributed as follows: Gold Coast Colony, over 853,000 (35·5 per square mile); Ashanti, over 287,000 (11·5 per square mile); Northern Territories, over 361,000 (11·6 per square mile). Of the total population 503 per thousand were males and 497 were females. Of towns with a population of more than 1,000, there were 154 in the Colony, 12 in Ashanti, and 52 in the Northern Territories. Accra had 19,582 inhabitants, Cape Coast 11,269, Obo 10,158, Kumasi 18,853 (24,000 in 1915), and Navarro 8,512; most of the rest had less than 3,000. It will be noticed that a large part of the population live in towns, though almost all the inhabitants are agriculturists; in consequence of a growing sense of security, however, and of the development of agriculture, there is nowadays a tendency for the people to form small townships and scattered villages, and it

is not expected that the large towns will increase in number or in size.

Movement.—No comparison can be made between the statistics of the census taken in 1891 and those of 1901 and 1911, because all of them, and especially the first two, are known to have been inaccurate. The population is probably increasing and may be expected to do so; one authority believes it to be increasing rapidly. As regards the birth-rate, all that can be said is that each woman seems to rear 3 children only, and that infant mortality is known to be high, though it may be expected to be reduced by material prosperity and by the gradual extension of better sanitary and hygienic measures which have been introduced by the British Government. These last improvements may also be expected to reduce the death-rate of adults, so that there is every reason to anticipate a marked increase in the population, especially since slave-raiding and inter-tribal fighting are no longer tolerated.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1618 First British footing on the Gold Coast.
- 1831 (*circa*). Beginning of Gold Coast Protectorate.
- 1843 Gold Coast forts finally taken over by the Crown.
- 1850 Acquisition of Danish Gold Coast possessions.
- 1871-72 Acquisition of Dutch Gold Coast possessions.
- 1873-74 Ashanti War.
- 1886 Gold Coast constituted a separate Colony and Protectorate.
- 1889, 1893, 1898 Principal Anglo-French boundary agreements on the west.
- 1890, 1899 Principal Anglo-German boundary agreements on the east.
- 1897 Northern Territories constituted a separate district.
- 1901 Annexation of Ashanti.
- 1906 Boundaries of the Colony, Ashanti, and Northern Territories defined by Order in Council.

INTRODUCTORY : EARLY TRADERS

During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries there was considerable commercial activity and rivalry in the Gold Coast region among Portuguese, French, English, Dutch, Danes, Brandenburgians, and others. The Portuguese founded Elmina, but had to give it up to the Dutch in 1637, and withdrew entirely in 1642. The Royal African Company (chartered by Charles II) and later the African Company of Merchants, to which, in 1750, it resigned its charter, carried on trade, especially in gold and slaves. Not much control was exercised by the European traders over the natives, and about 1720 the Kingdom of Ashanti became important and aggressive under a strong dynasty. This led to more systematic efforts by the Europeans, especially the English.

(1) ORIGIN OF THE COLONY

The last of the various British companies of merchants established on the Gold Coast disappeared in 1821, when the direct authority of the Crown was for a time asserted in the forts which the companies had held as trading stations. In 1828, however, the control of the forts was handed over to the London merchants concerned in the trade. They secured as their local Governor Captain George MacLean, a man of very unusual ability, who established British influence over a wide tract of territory. In 1843 direct control of the forts was resumed by the Crown, on account of suspicions that the merchants connived at the slave trade; and in 1850 the Gold Coast became for a time a separate colony, its territories being at the same time largely augmented by the purchase from the Danes of all their forts on the coast. In 1866, as the result of the resolution of 1865 to restrict British authority in West Africa, the Gold Coast was reunited with Sierra Leone; but in the following year the colony was consolidated by an agreement with Holland for the exchange of the forts owned by the Dutch to the east of a line drawn due north from the mouth of the Sweet River¹ for those owned by the British to the west of that line, which was henceforward to form the boundary between the possessions of the two Powers. The Dutch, however, were unable to induce the native tribes to respect their authority, and by a treaty of 1871 handed over their forts to England. This change of ownership was the direct cause of the war with Ashanti, which resulted in 1874 in the complete defeat of the King. The same year saw the erection of the Gold Coast, with Lagos, into a separate colony independent of Sierra Leone. In 1886 the connection with Lagos was ended, and the Gold Coast was left in its present state as a separate colony.

¹ Between Cape Coast and Elmina.

(2) RELATIONS WITH FRANCE AND GERMANY

The development of the colony and the extension of its sphere of influence brought it into contact with the growing power of France; and the boundaries between the two Powers formed the subject of treaties in 1889, 1891, 1893, and 1898, while the actual delimitation carried out in 1901 and the subsequent years was adopted with certain modifications by the agreement of May 24—July 19, 1906. On the eastern side the expansion of the colony was met by the German occupation of Togoland in 1884; and the boundary between the two territories was fixed by the Anglo-German treaty of 1890, and by a supplementary agreement of November 1899, by which the territory left neutral by the previous agreement was divided between the two Powers in such a way that Gambaga and the territories of Mamprusi fell to Great Britain, and Yendi and the territories of Chakosi to Germany.

(3) ANNEXATION OF ASHANTI

The arrangements with France in 1898 and with Germany in 1899 were followed by the definitive annexation of Ashanti. That kingdom had never recovered stability since the events of 1874. By 1894 the annexation of the country was recognised as the only remedy; but, though the King was deposed in 1896, the decisive step was not taken until the rising of the Ashantis in 1900, during the Governor's visit to their capital, made it clear that no smaller measure would be effective in bringing peace to the territory. Accordingly, in 1901, the territory of Ashanti was annexed; and the Northern Territories were organized as a separate protectorate. In 1906 the administrative boundaries of the Gold Coast Colony, of Ashanti, and of the Northern Territories were altered in order to avoid interference with natural tribal connections.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

The great majority of the population is pagan; but there are about 100,000 Christians in the Colony, and 5,000 in Ashanti, mainly Wesleyans. The Basel and Bremen Missions, the Roman Catholics, the Anglicans, Zionists, and Seventh Day Adventists have also adherents; in the Northern Territories the *Pères blancs* have 133 converts, as against 320,000 pagans. Mohammedanism claims about 42,500 adherents in the Northern Territories, mainly in the southern province; it has ceased to make progress, and is much corrupted by pagan influences. According to the census of 1911, 7 per cent. of the total population is Christian, 5 per cent. Mohammedan, and all the rest pagan.

(2) POLITICAL

The legislative power in the Gold Coast rests with the Governor in Legislative Council, a body consisting of eleven officials and several nominated unofficial members. In the case of Ashanti and the Northern Territories the legislative power is vested in the Governor alone. In all the territories, and more especially in Ashanti, and the Northern Territories, the Government acts largely through native channels under constant supervision; and cases between natives are disposed of by native courts acting under native law, subject to similar supervision. Every effort has been made to encourage the effective exercise of the chief's authority, but in the Northern Territories the task is

one of great difficulty, owing to the profound disorganization of the natives, whose condition prior to the British occupation had become anarchic.

(3) PUBLIC EDUCATION

Education is largely in the hands of missionary bodies, which maintain (a) schools that are subject to Government inspection, and receive grants-in-aid; and (b) schools not so subject. Of the former kind, in 1915, there were 154, and of the latter 276. In addition, the Government had fourteen schools under its direct control. In the assisted schools, which have an attendance of about 16,000, instruction in elementary subjects is given, and teaching in agriculture or other industrial work is normally included. The Government have also at Accra a training institution for teachers, which had 73 students in 1915; and an industrial and technical school, which had 41 pupils in 1915. Secondary schools exist at Accra and Cape Coast.

In the Northern Territories there are Government schools at Tamale and Gambaga, the former of which is well attended; there are also, wherever there are Mohammedans, native schools where children are instructed in reading and writing Hausa in Arabic characters, and learn by heart portions of the Koran. In Ashanti there are Government schools at Kumasi (390 boys, 91 girls in 1915) and Sunyani, and 44 mission schools with some 2,000 pupils. The Ashantis show much interest in education. The total Government expenditure on education in the colony and its dependencies amounted in 1915 to £32,414.

(4) GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The Gold Coast shares with Gambia the record of being the part of West Africa which has the oldest British connection. Unlike Gambia and Sierra Leone, it had for neighbours Germans as well as French. It has some natural drawbacks, it is true; but from a

commercial point of view it stands high among British tropical possessions, and is capable of much greater development in the future.

The late war has emphasized the arbitrary character of the existing political frontiers. In forwarding the annual report on the Northern Territories for 1914,¹ the Governor recorded the fact that

the Northern Territories constabulary performed most useful services in connection with the operations against Togoland; and the frontier chiefs exhibited much eagerness to assist our arms in the hope that tribes long divided by artificial and unnatural political boundaries may now be reunited under the British flag.

In his annual report for 1915² the Chief Commissioner of the Territories wrote:—

The attitude of the natives, during the many changes and withdrawals of administrative officers necessitated by the war, was generally exemplary. The one danger spot that exists is in the neighbourhood of the imaginary line running east and west that constitutes the boundary between the Protectorate and French territory. This in many cases bisects territories whose inhabitants find themselves in French territory in the northern portion and in British territory in the southern. Under such conditions local fights and constant disturbances must be anticipated. The year passed, however, without the occurrence of any incident of a serious nature.

¹ Cd. 7622. 54, p. 8.

² Cd. 8434. 4, p. 20.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

It is only within the last twenty years or so that it has been possible to make vigorous and continued efforts to overcome the appalling transport difficulties which for so long held back the development of the Gold Coast. While Ashanti remained independent, the routes across it to the interior were liable to be open or closed according as friendly or hostile relations existed between its king and the British Government. The Government, moreover, hesitating about the value of the colony, and often on the point of abandoning it, was naturally unwilling to undertake expensive public works. The situation was entirely changed by the new policy initiated in the last years of the nineteenth century, resulting in the annexation of Ashanti and the establishment of a solid block of British territory stretching north from the coast for 300 miles. Within this area much has already been done to improve means of communication. The original Gold Coast Colony received first attention; Ashanti came next, and the Northern Territories Protectorate is waiting its turn, rather impatiently, until more urgent needs to the south are satisfied.

(a) *Roads*

(i) **The Gold Coast Colony**

About 30,000 square miles of the Colony and Ashanti are covered with dense forest, and in that region the prevalence of the tsetse fly makes the use of horses or mule's impossible. Until recently, therefore, all goods

had to be transported on the heads of native carriers, a method as brutalising as it was inefficient, and as slow as it was costly. The experiences of the early gold-mining companies near Tarkwa proved how ill-adapted to modern requirements were such means of transport. The pulverisation of quartz requires stamps weighing 750–1,100 lb. or more, and it is undesirable to divide such machines into more than two or three sections. All the machinery, however, landed at Axim, and taken by boat up the Ankobra to Tomento, had to go on to the mines from there by carrier. Consequently no machine could be used whose heaviest section weighed more than four men could carry. Moreover, the cost of transport for ore was from £25–£30 a ton.

Quite recently motor vehicles have been introduced. The type most in use is the light motor lorry, at present generally of American make, with standardised parts, so that repairs can be carried out locally. The demand for such vehicles will undoubtedly increase, and it has been suggested that after the war army lorries might prove serviceable for the Gold Coast.

Traffic of this sort, though possible on secondary as well as main roads, sets a higher standard of road-making and road-mending than was needed before. Consequently, though head-transport still prevails on numerous forest tracks, a surprising change has been brought about, and many miles of well-engineered roads have superseded the rough and narrow paths which were universal in the last century.

Some 400 miles of roads in the colony are in the charge of the Public Works Department, which in 1916 spent £16,834 upon their upkeep. These roads fall into four groups:—

- (a) Those in the east, largely intended to link up the cocoa districts with Accra and with the Accra—Komfrodua (Koforidua) Railway.
- (b) Those in the centre, mostly leading north towards Ashanti.
- (c) Those in the west, serving the mining districts.
- (d) Those connecting the seaports.

(a) *Roads in the East.*—In this group the most notable road is that which runs north-east from Accra by Dodowa and Somanya, with a branch to Aburi, for over 60 miles, crossing the long range of the Akwapim Hills, and reaching the west bank of the Volta in the Krobo district, where there are many cocoa plantations.

Another road, available for light lorry traffic for 51 miles, runs north-west from Accra, in the direction of Kyebi (Kibbi). This was constructed originally by a mining company, and taken over by the Government in 1904. Its most southerly portion, as far as Nsawam, has lost in importance since the opening of the railway, which covers much the same ground.

There are also various transverse roads worthy of mention. One such road is under construction from Nsawam in the direction of Asamang-kese, and in 1916 had been completed and opened to motor traffic for a distance of $14\frac{1}{2}$ miles. Another road, running north-east from the railway at Komfrodia towards the Krobo plantations, had in 1916 been taken as far as the Pawmpawm River, across which it was carried by a steel girder bridge. Another useful road, 14 miles in length, runs from Mangoase on the railway, along the hills east to Adawso, and thence south-east to Mamfe, on the road north-east from Accra.

In 1916 there were in all $206\frac{1}{2}$ miles of main roads in the Eastern Province maintained by the Public Works Department. Besides these, there are numerous secondary roads, $617\frac{3}{4}$ miles of which were in 1916 under the Roads Ordinance, and maintained by the chiefs, who receive quarterly payments varying from 5s. to 20s. a mile for their work. Their quality, of course, depends upon the capacity of individual chiefs, and upon the time that European officials are able to spare for supervision and encouragement. On the whole, they are satisfactory, and a good many of them will bear light motor traffic.

One of the most encouraging features is the fact that the chiefs who have cocoa plantations are themselves

waking up to the value of road-making in their own interests. In 1916 the chiefs of the Akwapim division initiated a scheme for connecting their towns on the hills with their plantations in the valleys and with the railway. They engaged European contractors, bore the whole cost of construction, and produced properly engineered motor roads, though, unluckily, they worked in competition, not in combination, with each other.

(b) *Roads in the Central Province.*—Here the road along which forces moved in the Ashanti wars is that which runs northwards to the Pra from the former seat of government at Cape Coast. In 1895 Major Baden-Powell, who traversed it on the Ashanti expedition, described it as “merely a narrow pathway, the best part . . . only sufficiently wide for two men moving abreast.” To-day this is a motor road, 43 miles in length and 20 ft. in width. Except for the first few miles out of Cape Coast, its course lies through dense forest. Its general direction is first north-east, through Dunkwa, Daman, and Asaman to Manso, and thence north-westward to Prahsu, across innumerable water-courses.

Another motor road, also 20 ft. wide, runs from Cape Coast north-west to Jukwa (14 miles). The lorry traffic on this, however, is considerably less than on any other main road of the colony.

Two other roads, much used for motor traffic, deserve mention. One, starting from Saltpond, on the coast, runs north-eastward by Mankesem (where it sends off a branch of $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-west to Domenase) to Asafo Denkera, Ajumako, Kokoben and Asikuma ($31\frac{1}{2}$ miles). It is intended to continue this road roughly along the course of the Nakwa River to Nsuaim (61 miles). The other, linking up Winneba, on the coast, with the village of Asantemang, had in 1916 been carried with a width of 20 ft. for $43\frac{3}{4}$ miles to within about 2 miles of Asantemang. At Soadru (Swedru), $14\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Winneba, a branch of $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles eastward to Kwanyako was under construction.

(c) *Roads in the West.*—In this district much less

has been done in the way of making motor roads than in the centre and the east. This fact, at first sight curious—since this is the region of the gold-mining industry—is due to a variety of causes. Steep gradients and wide rivers present serious obstacles to road-making. Government attention has been concentrated upon the Sekondi Railway. The mining companies construct for their own purposes miles of steam tramways. Lastly, the native chiefs as yet scarcely grasp the value of road work, and therefore do only the minimum necessary in order to avoid fine or censure. Here and there, where there has been special encouragement and supervision, the state of affairs is better, but the majority of the chiefs' roads are quite unfit for even light motor traffic, and there are many parts to which might still be applied the description which a traveller gave a few years ago of the road from Beyin¹:—

“The way was ankle-deep in water, knee-deep in mud. Raffia palm, creepers, and all manner of swamp grasses grew so close that the hammock could barely be forced through, and only two men could carry it. We went up perhaps 20 feet in squelching, slippery mud. We came down again, and the greenery opened out into an expanse of water. . . . There were holes hidden by that water, but it is the trade-route north all the same, and has been the trade-route for hundreds of years.”

There are only three roads, maintained by the Public Works Department, of which mention need be made. The first of these connects Ashieme, on the railway, with Shama, due east on the coast (9 miles). The next connects Insu, on the Sekondi—Kumasi Railway, with Brumasi, the terminus of the Tarkwa branch line (20 miles). The last links up Axim port with the mouth of the Ankobra River, four miles to the west.

(d) *Roads connecting the Seaports.*—At present the traveller east and west along the coast must either use the natural highway of the sands or, when “the sea be too full,” as the carriers say, take to rough tracks among the coconut palms. Here and there he will find a few

¹ Mary Gaunt, *Alone in West Africa*, 1911.

stretches of motor road, such as that which covers the 8 miles between Cape Coast and Elmina. There is also communication by steamer, but in view of the difficulties of landing on a surf-bound coast it is important that an alternative land route should be available. It was expected that early in 1918 a motor road from Cape Coast to Anamabo would be opened to traffic, and a survey is being made for a road all the way from Accra to Axim.

(ii) Ashanti

A fine road, planned on almost too magnificent a scale, with a regular motor service, leads northward for 61 miles from Kumasi through a tangle of hills and forest. A branch, 10 miles in length, runs to Effiduasi. Regular motor traffic is also employed from Kumasi eastward to Juanso (43 miles) and north-west to Ofinso (22 miles) on roads carried by large bridges over the Anum and Ofin rivers respectively.

The Government has recently devoted much attention to reconstructing other roads in Ashanti, with a view to fitting them for motor traffic. In 1916, 80 miles had been thus treated, and 230 miles were under construction. In the Southern Province especially there has been much activity, though many of the roads cannot be opened until money is available to build their bridges and culverts. Among these may be noted a star of four roads radiating from Bekwai and others serving the gold-mining districts near Akrokerri.

(iii) The Northern Territories

Here the roads are cleaned and repaired by native labour, under supervision, but little has yet been done to prepare for motor traffic or build permanent bridges. Washaways always occur in the rainy season, and many bridges disappear regularly every year. A good system of roads connects Tamale, the seat of government, with its port on the White Volta, with other towns in the Southern District, such as Daboya to the west and

Salaga and Yeji to the south, and with Gambaga, Navoro, and Bawku in the North-Eastern District. From the latter roads run west to Tumu and Lorha, in the North-Western District, and these are again linked by roads southward to Wa and Bole.

Caravans from the French colonies beyond the territories come down towards Kumasi on three parallel lines of trade routes. The western is by Lorha, Wa, and Bole; the eastern by Gambaga, Tamale, Salaga, Yeji and Ejura; and the central by Gambaga, Daboya, Busunu, Kintampo and Nkoransa.

(b) Rivers

The navigable rivers of the Gold Coast fall into two groups, viz., the Volta and its affluents in the north and east, and the rivers of the western plains. In the first group only the Volta itself and its main tributaries contain water throughout the year, but in the second group most of the streams are perennial. All the rivers except the Volta and Ankobra have such bad bars that they cannot be entered from the sea, and all are much encumbered by rapids, rocks and snags. Moreover, their level varies enormously at different seasons, and in the rains their currents are so swift and strong as seriously to impede navigation. They are not, therefore, by nature well suited for transport purposes, and the cost of making them so would probably be prohibitive.

The most notable system of waterways is that formed by the Black Volta, the White Volta and the united stream which is known simply as the Volta. These have in all a course within British territory of some 1,000 miles, of which about 900 are navigable by craft of some sort. At its mouth the Volta is a mile wide, with a depth on its bar of 9 ft. at low-water, spring tides. Steam launches drawing 6 ft. of water can ascend in all seasons as far as Duffo Island (44 miles), and 10 miles further when the river is at its highest level. Between July and November large cargo canoes can ascend the whole length of the Volta (300 miles).

and can proceed along the Black Volta to Longoro (400 miles), or up the White Volta to Yapei and Tamale Port (340 miles) and Daboya (375 miles). Ordinary canoes can reach these points at any season. The way, however, is much impeded by rapids, especially at Senkye (62 miles) and at Krachi (197 miles). At Krachi a mono-rail has been installed to enable canoes to lighten their loads. Beyond Daboya the White Volta is impassable, and beyond Longoro the Black Volta is in the same condition for 170 miles. Above the confluence of the Sako, however, it can be used by ordinary canoes for the rest of its course in British territory, to the eleventh parallel (700 miles from the sea).

The only other tributary of the Volta which is known to be navigable is the Afram, which has no obstruction except snags for 90 miles above its junction with the Volta, as far as Aframso.

Of the rivers in the western group, the most useful are the Tano, Ankobra and Pra.

The Tano, whose total length is about 250 miles, falls into the Tendo lagoon, from which a tram-line, 3 miles long, runs to the port of Half Aseni. Light steam launches can ascend to Tanoso (44 miles) and cargo canoes to Atakwabo (50 miles), but above that point there are rapids and other obstructions.

The Ankobra, 180 miles in length, has a bar with a depth of 6 ft. of water. Steam launches and heavy surf-boats can go up during the season of highest water level as far as Awudwa (66 miles), but when the river is low only as far as Akanko (22 miles). There are bad rapids at Anurase (50 miles) and at several other points. When the river is at its lowest level surf-boats can get as far as the confluence of the Bonsa (55 miles), and light canoes to Awudwa.

The Pra is about 180 miles in length, and cargo canoes can ascend to Prahsu (100 miles). There are many shoals and rapids, and above Prahsu the stream is of no use for commercial transport. It might, however, without much trouble be made available for floating timber throughout its course.

(c) Railways

There are at present two Government railways, and in 1916, 264 miles of line were in use.

The first of these runs from Sekondi to Tarkwa (40 miles), Obuasi (124 miles) and Kumasi (170 miles). It was begun originally in 1898 to serve the mining districts, reached Tarkwa by May 1901, and was then extended northward, reaching Kumasi by September 1903. In 1911 a branch line was opened from Tarkwa to Prestea and Brumase (20 miles). There is also a small branch eastward from Inchaban Junction to Inchaban (2 miles).

The second line runs from Accra by Mangoase and Komfrodia to Jumapo (62 miles). The first section, to Mangoase (40 miles), was opened in 1911, the object being to connect the cocoa plantations in the Akwapim Hills with Accra and the sea. In March 1916 the Weshiang railway, running from Accra to the Waterworks 10 miles away, was taken over from the Public Works Department.

These railways, especially the Sekondi—Kumasi line, are engineering feats of some magnitude, carried out in face of serious difficulties—the slow landing of material at the unsatisfactory port of Sekondi; the clearing of virgin forest, not only sufficiently to admit the track, but to a total width of 300 ft. to avoid danger from falling trees; the lack of ballast, which is necessitated by the soft clay soil, but is only to be had by quarrying to a depth of from 50 to 100 ft., or by the laborious collection of surface boulders in the bush; and the bridging of numerous watercourses, swollen during the early years of construction by two abnormally wet seasons. Between Sekondi and Kumasi there are 38 bridges of 20-ft. span or more, the biggest being that over the Bonsa River, with three spans, two of 60 and one of 100 ft., and that across the Ofin River, with three spans of 100 ft. each. The Prestea branch in its 20 miles has nine bridges of 20-ft. span or over, the most formidable

¹ In 1917 an extension was opened to Tafo (8 miles).

obstacle being the Ankobra River, crossed by a bridge whose five spans are 40, 175, 90, 40, and 30 ft., and the Huni River, with a bridge of three spans of 20 and one of 50 ft. On the Accra line, though there are 21 bridges of 20-ft. span or more, there is nothing wider than a 40-ft. span.

On all the lines the gauge is 3 ft. 6 in., except in the case of the Weshiang railway, where it is 2 ft. 6 in. The locomotives are of British construction. On the Accra line the engine-power is totally inadequate, while on the Weshiang railway both locomotives and rolling-stock were in bad condition when taken over.

Financial Considerations.—All the railways were undertaken for purposes of development, without regard to an immediate return. Their financial condition, however, is satisfactory. Between 1904 and 1916, in which period 80 additional miles of line were opened, the gross receipts rose from £148,096 to £489,912, the working expenses from £91,465 to £197,065. In other words, while the expenses doubled, the receipts trebled. Moreover, progress has been steadily maintained in spite of the war. The total capital expenditure to December 31, 1916, was £3,170,650. The interest earned in that year upon the capital was 9·24 per cent., as against 8·93 per cent. in 1915, 7·32 per cent. in 1914, 8·26 per cent. in 1913, and 8·05 per cent. in 1912.

The general financial results between 1911 and 1916 were as follows :¹—

| Year. | Miles open. | Gross Earnings. | Working Expenses. | Net Earnings. | Proportion of Working Expenses to Gross Receipts. |
|-------|-------------|-----------------|-------------------|---------------|---|
| | | £ | £ | £ | Per cent |
| 1911 | 188 | 285,917 | 102,119 | 183,798 | 35·71 |
| 1912 | 222 | 315,372 | 120,967 | 194,405 | 38·36 |
| 1913 | 227 | 360,591 | 149,955 | 210,636 | 41·59 |
| 1914 | 227 | 383,009 | 174,093 | 208,916 | 45·45 |
| 1915 | 245 | 447,295 | 183,807 | 263,488 | 41·09 |
| 1916 | 248 | 489,912 | 197,065 | 292,847 | 40·22 |

¹ These figures, taken from the Administrative Report of the Gold Coast Railways, 1916, do not include the Weshiang line.

The Weshiang line is largely used for passengers and for carrying firewood. In ten months its gross earnings were £3,415, against an expenditure of £2,360, leaving the net profits at £1,055.

Future Developments.—The late Governor, Sir Hugh Clifford, recently stated that in his opinion the future prosperity of the Gold Coast depended more upon the rapid pushing forward of the projected railway extensions than upon any other individual effort the Government could make. Among these projects the extension towards Kumasi from Komfrodua, on which work stopped in 1915, has first claim. The Jumapo extension mentioned above is one section of that line, and a survey for the whole is in progress. Probably in the end a trunk line will have to run north from Kumasi, though for the first part of its course such a line would traverse but sparsely populated country.

Cross-lines are under consideration between the Accra—Komfrodua and Sekondi—Kumasi Railways, but the best route has not yet been agreed upon. A line on the sixth parallel, north latitude, was originally suggested, but it is now thought that a line nearer the coast would be of more immediate value, as it would serve Cape Coast, Saltpond, and Winneba, and pass through more populous country.

(d) *Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones*

There were, in 1916, 88 post offices in the Gold Coast Colony, Ashanti and the Northern Territories. The mails are taken partly by rail, partly by steamer along the coast when opportunity offers, partly by motor launch on the Volta between Adda and Akuse, and for the rest by means of native runners.

There were 55 telegraph offices open to the public and 1,500 miles of wire in use.

Four telephone exchanges were open—at Accra, Sekondi, Dodowa and Tarkwa—and 182 telephones were in use, 66 being public and 116 official.

The Posts and Telegraphs Department paid its way for the first time in 1916.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) Ports

Accommodation.—The Gold Coast is heavily handicapped in respect of shipping accommodation. Along its entire length there is not a single harbour with adequate protection against the Atlantic swell and the Guinea current. Ocean-going ships have to lie in open roadsteads at distances of $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 miles from the shore, and landing, by means of native surf-boats, is costly and dangerous.

The chief ports, named from west to east, are Half Assinie, Axim, Sekondi, Cape Coast, Saltpond, Appam, Winneba, Accra, Adda and Kwitta. The choice between these in their natural state is a choice of evils; but, as Sekondi and Accra have been fixed upon as starting-points for the railways, efforts at harbour improvements have been made in these two. At Sekondi a breakwater 670 ft. in length was completed in 1914. At Accra a breakwater 800 ft. in length was completed in 1916. This gives a sheltered area for landing goods. A new wharf, 435 ft. in length, is under construction on the harbour side of the breakwater.

Nature and Volume of Trade.—Steamers entering the ports of the colony stay for a day or two only, so that for all practical purposes the number of vessels entering may be taken as the number clearing.

The following table¹ shows the number of vessels that entered between 1912 and 1916 :—

¹ Taken from the Annual Reports.

| Year. | Steam Vessels. | | Sailing Vessels. | |
|-------|----------------|-----------|------------------|--------|
| | Number. | Tons. | Number. | Tons. |
| 1912 | 686 | 1,448,506 | 1 | 958 |
| 1913 | 692 | 1,515,197 | 1 | 851 |
| 1914 | 637 | 1,412,909 | 1 | 751 |
| 1915 | 354 | 818,356 | 8 | 7,259 |
| 1916 | 340 | 766,315 | 20 | 16,331 |

During the late war, German ships ceased to call altogether, and British ships diminished in number. Twenty American sailing ships visited the ports in 1916, as against eight in 1915. Direct intercourse with America has increased. The Elder Dempster Line now has a monthly service between New York and the Gold Coast. Table II in the Appendix (p. 61) shows the nationality of steamers entered between 1912 and 1916.

(b) *Shipping Lines*

The chief lines serving the Gold Coast are those of Elder, Dempster & Co. In normal times this firm provides a weekly mail service to and from Liverpool by steamers of the African Steamship Company and the British & African Steam Navigation Company. It also runs four cargo lines from Liverpool, viz., River Service No. 1, River Service No. 2, Gold Coast Service, and Windward Service. The two former leave Liverpool on alternate Saturdays and the two latter on alternate Thursdays. Creek service steamers run monthly from Rotterdam, and a monthly cargo service from New York has now been instituted. Ordinarily, therefore, every port along the coast is visited by one or other of these lines at frequent intervals.

In addition to these British services, the mail steamers of the Woermann Line, Hamburg, used to call monthly, and the cargo boats of the same company four times in

each month. A mail steamer of the Chargeurs Réunis called monthly at Accra and Sekondi, and a few cargo steamers from Marseilles put in irregular appearances.

(c) *Telegraphic Communication*

Accra and Sekondi are in telegraphic communication with Europe *via* Sierra Leone and Madeira, and to the south with Lagos, Bonny, Cameroon and the Cape.

A wireless station was opened at Accra in 1912, with a normal range of 250 nautical miles.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

(a) *Supply of Labour*

The quality of labour is, on the whole, good. The natives are industrious if not over-intelligent farmers, willing and hardy carriers, and energetic labourers in the mines. They fail chiefly in having little initiative and in lack of perseverance.

There is no general system of registration of persons entering or leaving the colony, so that no statistics of emigration and immigration can be given. It is estimated that some 3,500 labourers, few of whom become permanent residents, enter the colony every year in search of employment. Most of these immigrants are natives of the Kru coast (Liberia), Sierra Leone and Lagos. In 1916, of 17,157 labourers employed in the gold mines, 29 per cent. came from foreign countries, 15 per cent. from other British colonies, 11 per cent. from Ashanti, 20 per cent. from the Northern Territories, and 25 per cent. from the Gold Coast Colony. In the past a certain number of native artisans used to leave the Gold Coast every year to get work as skilled labourers in adjoining territories. This emigration, however, is ceasing as the local demand increases.

Large numbers of Mohammedans come down every dry season to trade in Ashanti, returning before the roads become impassable. Unskilled labour is supplied to Ashanti in considerable quantities from the Northern Territories. In 1916 one-half of the inhabitants of Kumasi, or about 12,000 persons, were from the north.

(b) Labour Conditions

The wages on the Gold Coast are high as compared with those paid in eastern colonies. The rates for domestic servants vary from £1 to £6 per month, £1 10s. to £2 being the average, and cooks are paid from £2 to £6 per month. The Government rate for carriers is 1s. a day and 3d. subsistence money. Contract labourers and carriers under contract for a period of months are paid at the same rate. Native carpenters, masons and smiths find employment easily at wages of from 1s. 6d. to 4s. 2d. a day.

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) Products of Commercial Value

The Gold Coast and Ashanti

The most profitable vegetable product, far exceeding all others, is cocoa, which now accounts for over 90 per cent. of the total value of native industries. Next come kola nuts, palm kernels, palm oil, rubber and timber. Finally, there are commodities capable of future development, such as piassava, copal, copra, and various dyes and pigments.

Cocoa.—The enormously rapid development of the purely native industry of cocoa cultivation is perhaps the most startling fact in the recent history of the Gold Coast, and has had effects upon every aspect of the colony's life—political, social, and economic. The seed was introduced from Fernando Po in 1879, and planted in the Volta River district, where it found exactly suitable natural conditions—humidity, good drainage

forest and mountain shelter. The first export of 80 lb., value £4, was made in 1891. In 1916, 72,161 tons were exported, value £3,847,720, and even that amount was but a part of the whole crop obtained, since tonnage was not available to take it all. Over one-third of the cocoa of the world is now produced in this region, and every year more land is brought under cultivation.

Unluckily, the quality of Gold Coast cocoa has not kept pace with its quantity. Native methods of cultivation are careless. The farmer crowds his seedlings, and leaves a space of only 7 to 10 ft. between his growing plants. He neglects all sanitary and cultural precautions; and when his plantations, in consequence, are attacked by insect or fungoid pests, simply abandons them for fresh ground, leaving the old trees to spread infection. "The spread of blights is so marked and so progressive," wrote Sir David Prain in 1915, "that it becomes every day more difficult to check their ravages. . . . The dangers which now threaten cocoa in the Gold Coast Colony bid fair in the near future to extinguish what is now a profitable industry." Again, when the time for harvesting comes, the native pulls off the pods by hand, without thought of injury to the trees, and without any care to select mature fruit only. He generally does not ferment the beans, but washes them in a stream, and dries them on mats in the sun. Then he sells the whole lot—wet and dry, ripe, unripe, and over-ripe—without sorting. Beans of such uneven value naturally fetch low prices in the European markets.

There were in 1916 five agricultural stations and five sub-stations in the Gold Coast and Ashanti, and every effort has been made by demonstration and inspection to encourage better methods. Two difficulties, however, stand in the way of improvement. The first is that the acreage now under cultivation is far too large for close supervision by a small European staff. The second is that the farmer who has been persuaded to take the trouble to prepare his beans properly finds that he gets no better price than his neighbour whose plantation is

neglected. The European merchants do not usually buy direct, but through native agents, who work on commission. The merchants advance money to these middlemen, and give them a limit of price to which they may go. Consequently it is to their interest to buy at the lowest possible figure and pocket the difference. Moreover, the merchants have forward contracts, and are bound to secure a certain amount by a given date, so that they cannot afford to wait to purchase picked lots in small quantities. Unless some system of grading the cocoa is introduced, with a corresponding scale of purchasing prices, it is not to be expected that friendly persuasion, or even coercive legislation, will induce the native to abandon his present methods.

Other valuable measures would be the establishment of central drying and fermenting stations, and the provision of proper storage at an even temperature.

The *kola* tree grows wild in the forests north of Kumasi, and in other parts the natives plant a few trees round each village. The fresh nuts are exported by caravan through the Northern Territories for the Sudan, and by sea to Southern Nigeria. The dried nuts, which contain 2.34 per cent. of caffeine, .02 per cent. of theobromine and 1.62 per cent. of tannin, are exported in small quantities to Europe for medicinal purposes, for making kola wine, and for mixing with chocolate.

The wild *oil palm* grows abundantly in the moist regions near the coast, and plantations have also been made. The palm begins to bear in its seventh year, and produces two crops annually until it is about thirty years old. The fruit yields three products of commercial value—oil from the pericarp; oil from the kernel; and meal left when the kernels have been crushed and the oil removed, which is used for cattle food.

The natives throw the fruit into pits to decompose until the fibrous pulp can be separated from the stones, subject the mass to repeated poundings in vats, and then boil and clean the oil. Much might be done to

improve the quality by better preparation. The stones are then dried and the kernels cracked out singly by hand. This is a slow method, but has some advantages over cracking by machinery. In a test made recently on 660 lb. of seasoned nuts, two women, cracking in the native method, got 193 lb. of kernels in $6\frac{1}{2}$ days, at a cost of 13s.; while two men, with a centrifugal hand-machine, took 145 lb. of kernels from the same quantity in $1\frac{1}{2}$ days, at a cost of 6s. 3d. A considerably larger ratio of kernels was thus obtained by the hand method. The kernels are shipped to Europe, where they are ground into meal, and the oil obtained either by extraction or by crushing.

The oil is used for making soap, glycerine, and candles, for certain processes in the manufacture of tin-plates, and for margarine. Germany used to have almost a monopoly of the kernels, using the cake extensively for cattle food, and supplying the oil to margarine manufacturers in Holland. In the present demand for edible fats there is every reason for stimulating the kernel industry. Nut-crushing mills at Hull and elsewhere are ready to purchase the kernels, and European firms are engaged in the development of oil-palm products. At present their efforts are still in the experimental stage. The fluctuations in output between 1912 and 1916 were as follows¹ :—

| Year. | Palm Oil. | | Palm Kernels. | |
|-------|-----------|---------|---------------|---------|
| | Gallons. | Value. | Tons. | Value. |
| | | £ | | £ |
| 1912 | 1,444,432 | 112,885 | 14,628 | 205,365 |
| 1913 | 860,155 | 65,652 | 9,744 | 159,128 |
| 1914 | 495,763 | 37,646 | 5,633 | 88,671 |
| 1915 | 330,990 | 25,769 | 4,064 | 50,512 |
| 1916 | 450,360 | 38,299 | 5,857 | 85,899 |

¹ Report of the Customs and Marine Departments, 1916.

Rubber can be obtained from three indigenous sources—wild figs, vines (especially *Landolphia owariensis*), and the African rubber tree, *Funtumia elastica*.

“Memeluku” rubber, tapped from the wild figs, and coagulated into thick “biscuits,” is not of much value, as it breaks easily. The vines yield a good rubber, called “white ball,” from the form in which it is coagulated. The Krepi tribes east of the Volta produce a good deal of this kind.

Funtumia elastica grows wild in abundance, but native methods of tapping have been so ignorant and so violent that not even the prolific forests could stand the strain. The cuts are made too deep and taken too high up the stem, and a second tapping is made within a few months of the first. Few trees can survive their third or fourth tapping on this method.

Native preparation of the rubber is also defective. The latex, or milky fluid, is poured into pits to coagulate, and is mixed with the latices of resinous, non-rubber-yielding plants and other adulterants. The result is a spongy, dirty, evil-smelling mass known as “Gold Coast lump.”

Every effort is being made to teach the native better methods of tapping and coagulation, and also to introduce plantation instead of wild rubber. Government plantations of *Funtumia elastica* have been made at Aburi, Kumasi and Tarkwa, and in the latter district have done well. Moreover, large plantations have been made of the Pará rubber tree, *Hevea brasiliensis*, which yields the best rubber of commerce. This is not a native of the Gold Coast, but has considerable powers of adaptation, and is showing satisfactory results.

The future of the rubber industry will depend upon the extent to which plantations can be substituted for wild rubber and methods of preparation improved. Export had been declining for some years, as the following figures show¹ :—

¹ Report of the Customs and Marine Departments, 1916.

| Year. | Quantity. | Value. |
|-------|-----------|---------|
| | lbs. | £ |
| 1907 | 3,549,548 | 333,120 |
| 1910 | 3,223,265 | 358,876 |
| 1913 | 1,317,369 | 87,915 |
| 1914 | 654,133 | 21,631 |
| 1915 | 647,982 | 25,167 |

In 1916 there was a revival of the industry, due to the increased demand in England, and 2,215,973 lb. were shipped. The value, however, was only £78,865, as the export largely consisted of paste varieties, which in normal times would not be saleable. It is not likely, therefore, that the increase will continue, unless quality is improved.

Fibres.—*Raphia vinifera* is common near the streams in the Western Province. The stem is tapped for wine, the wood is used for canoe poles, and the fibre for baskets, thatch and cordage. The price of the fibre, which is sold in the European markets as piassava, is high enough to make it worth while to try to develop its export. Another useful fibre, commercially allied to jute, can be obtained from *Triumfetta cordifolia*, an herbaceous plant which grows wild near Axim and Sekondi, and might be worth cultivating.

Copal resin of various types can be obtained in the forests of Akim and Ashanti. "Accra copal," as it is called, has hitherto been of much less value than the copal produced in Sierra Leone and elsewhere, but this was due partly to the way in which it was shipped, mixed with dust and dirt and not graded in quality. If well cleaned, and separated according to size and colour, it could compete with varieties which are at present preferred.

Copra, the dried contents of the coconut, might be obtained in large quantities, for the palm grows freely along the coast, especially near Kwitta and Adda. Of late years seed nuts have been distributed, and every

effort has been made to stimulate the planting of coconuts. A successful copra industry would restore some of the importance of the coast towns, which have suffered from the development of the cocoa industry in the interior.

Dyes.—The *logwood* and *camwood* dye trees flourish in some of the forests, and *indigo* is prepared from two or three species of *Indigofera* which grow near the villages. Dyes are exported in very small quantities; their main use is local.

Cotton is grown for local use, especially on the northern forest boundary and in the district east of the Volta. In 1903, in the hope of developing cotton cultivation for export purposes, the Government started a plantation at Anum, later removed to Labolabo, in the Volta district. The British Cotton Growing Association took over the plantation in 1906, and, with the help of a Government grant, continued the experiment for some years. A large steam ginnery was put up in 1907, and the natives were offered at first 1*d.*, and later, in view of prices offered by the Germans across the border in Togoland, 1½*d.*, for every pound of seed cotton they brought. American and other cottons were planted and experiments made in their hybridisation with the native varieties. The quantities produced, however, were disappointing: transport was difficult, and more profitable industries which required less labour proved more attractive. Cultivation on a commercial scale has, therefore, been abandoned, though the ginnery at Labolabo remains open to deal with any cotton which may be produced in that district.

Among *foodstuffs*, maize, yams, koko-yams, okra, peppers, millet, cassava, plantains and ground-nuts are grown for local needs; only ground-nuts are exported. Pineapples, bananas, cucumbers, spinach, pumpkins, oranges, pawpaws, limes, mangoes, avocado pears, custard apples and grape-fruit are cultivated.

For *timber*, see below under Forestry, p. 41.

The Northern Territories

A good deal of natural wealth in this region will have to wait for development until rapid transport to the coast has been provided. At present the products are either used locally or sold in Ashanti or the Gold Coast Colony, and the markets are not tempting enough to make the farmer extend his efforts.

Guinea corn is the most important grain crop grown, but maize is also planted, and the climate and soil seem suitable for the production of wheat. Excellent rice, equal to large Patna, is grown at Wa, Tamale, and elsewhere, and this cultivation could be greatly extended by using the areas along the mid-Volta and other streams, which are annually flooded for a considerable time. The shea-nut tree and the dawa-dawa bean are widely distributed. Shea butter, used for cooking all over the Territories, finds a good market in Ashanti, and might be much more remunerative than it is if cultivation in plantations were undertaken, or even if the collection of the wild produce were made more systematic. Tobacco grows in many parts, and there is a little vine rubber of good quality. Fibre similar to jute is obtained from two species of *Hibiscus*. Two species of gum acacia are common; and the neou, or wood oil tree, yields a resin rather like copal. Cotton is grown for local use throughout the country, and the effort to utilize the crop for export was continued at Tamale some time after it was given up in the Gold Coast Colony. It now seems clear, however, that it will never be profitable to grow on a large scale for export. The yarn made from the native cotton is dyed with indigo from a species of *Indigofera* or from the young leaves of *Lonchocarpus cyanescens*.

Bee-farming is carried on in certain districts, as at Tamale and Daboya, and beeswax of good quality, for which there is as yet no market, is produced.

Wire-haired sheep and goats are common; large flocks of guinea-fowl run free in most villages; and

fowls are reared for sale in the southern markets. A straight-backed species of cattle, rather like small Jersey, known as Dagomba, is bred in the Lobi, Dargati, Grunshi and Dagomba districts. A Government stock farm has now been opened at Tamale, and it is hoped to improve the breed, though even so far north as this the tsetse fly is troublesome. The cattle and other animals are driven in the dry season to the Kumasi markets. Dagomba beef is superior to that of the Moshi variety offered by the French cattle traders, but no attempt has yet been made to compete on a large scale.

(b) Methods of Cultivation

The native of the Gold Coast, on the whole, is not a good farmer, mainly because the richness of the soil gives him too easily all he wants. He clears a small patch of land, cutting down trees of manageable size, and removing the débris by burning. For a maize plantation all he does is to turn up the soil and sow his seed. If he wants to grow yams or ground-nuts, he must dig out the stumps and roots, hoe the entire patch, and scrape the earth into mounds. The yams or nuts are planted on the top; maize on the sides; okra, pepper, and plantains about the field between the mounds. The best-cultivated fields are those of the Krepi, Krobo, Akim and Kwahu, while the Ashanti, since the pacification of their country, are learning rapidly. The main obstacle to progress lies in the native practice of shifting cultivation as soon as a patch is exhausted or becomes diseased. In the Northern Territories, outside the forest area, the natives are rather better farmers. They understand the rotation of crops thoroughly, but make no use of manures except for the tobacco fields, where they apply wood ashes and sweepings as a top dressing. If irrigation were employed, rice could be grown more extensively than it is at present.

The extension of cocoa cultivation is likely gradually to improve these primitive methods of agriculture. Though the native at present maltreats his plantations, his own interest must in time lead him to work more scientifically. Moreover, the crop is permanent, land rises in value, and shifting cultivation is becoming less general. The Government has set up five agricultural stations and five sub-stations, at which experiments are carried out in the cultivation of all the more important products; approved methods are brought to the notice of the farmers, and plants and seeds are distributed. Besides the courses of instruction at the stations, European and native officers on their tours of inspection give lectures and practical demonstrations.

(c) Forestry

Three types of tropical woodland are represented in the Gold Coast :—

1. Rain or moist evergreen tropical forests. These touch the coast for a short distance only, in the extreme west, from Newtown to Axim. They extend inland in two long arms, the first lying along the western frontier, covering the valleys of the Ankobra, Tano, and Bia Rivers, and ending at a point just beyond the seventh degree north latitude; the second stretching north-eastward, by Tarkwa and the valleys of the Pra. Anum and Birrim, till it splits into detached belts among the Bompata, Abetifi-Obo, Bogoro and Kyebi (Kibbi) Hills. These forests contain trees of very lofty growth, mahogany, odum and others, which yield first-class timber, the oil palm and other species yielding oils and fats, and also dye and fibre-producing plants.

2. Savannah forests. These are most conspicuous in the east, but stretch westward from Kwitta along the coast in a band which narrows gradually till it stops at Sekondi. From Accra they follow the plains towards the Volta, sweep north along the valley of that river, and at latitude $6^{\circ} 30'$ north widen to cover the whole of

northern Ashanti and much of the Northern Territories. The trees here, except for a few giants, are of smaller stature than those in the rain forests. The country is park-like, rich in herbs and especially in grasses.

3. Monsoon or mixed deciduous forests. A rather green type of monsoon forest covers the whole of the country that is not occupied either by rain forest or by savannah forest. In forests of this type a large number of plants of economic value occur; and certain trees, such as the *Funtumia elastica*, which also grow in the rain forests, are here most plentiful and at their best.

A Forestry Department has been formed for the inspection of forest areas and the acquisition of reserves. Three large reserves, the Pra-Anum, the Obogu and the Kumawu-Agogo, have been formed in Ashanti, and experiments have been made with the planting of teak and sissoo. The Conservator of Forests and his staff have two great problems to face: the felling of trees in the mining districts for firewood; and the felling of trees to make way for cocoa plantations. During the war, owing to coal shortage, the mines have had to use more wood than ever, and it is difficult to provide sufficient quantities without damage to the country. However, the land at the disposal of the mines is usually extensive enough to permit of a long felling rotation, so that the secondary growth has time to reach good dimensions before it is in turn removed. The indiscriminate extension of cocoa plantations is much more alarming, partly because it is more widespread, and partly because the native practice of shifting cultivation involves a more rapid return to the same area. The Conservator in 1915 protested that "if this is allowed to continue much longer a largely increasing prosperity will be purchased at a very serious cost to the eventual welfare of the country." He advocates the conservation of protective forest belts.

The commercial value of the forests was examined in 1908 by Mr. H. N. Thompson, Conservator of Forests in Southern Nigeria, and in 1910 an exhibition was

held at Liverpool of 48 kinds of timber obtainable in the Gold Coast. The general conclusion of the experts is that there are many durable and useful woods which have not been fully utilized in the past, but that the majority of these are to be recommended for local use, not for export. Of the exceptions, the most valuable is mahogany. Several redwoods are included under this name, the best being *Khaya senegalensis*, a large tree called by the natives *dubini*. This is widely distributed in the wet forest zone, especially in the west of the colony. The logs are floated down the Ankobra, Pra, Tano and other rivers, and shipped mainly from Axim and Sekondi. Unluckily, many get out of control, and hundreds strew the sand and rocks between the mouth of the Ankobra and Sekondi until they decay. There is a temporary cessation in the demand for mahogany owing to the war, but under normal conditions the possibilities of export are only limited by the facilities for getting the logs from the place where they are felled to river or railway. There are other hard woods suitable for export, such as odum (*Chlorophora excelsa*) and baku (*Mimusops djave*), but these have not hitherto been shipped in anything like the same quantities as the mahoganies. The export of timber between 1912 and 1916 was as follows¹ :—

| Year. | Super. Feet. | Value. |
|-------|--------------|---------|
| | | £ |
| 1912 | 23,573,651 | 228,745 |
| 1913 | 37,391,848 | 366,094 |
| 1914 | 24,587,217 | 240,878 |
| 1915 | 9,217,622 | 90,661 |
| 1916 | 10,334,793 | 93,980 |

There is an opening for the increased use of local woods to replace the large quantities of foreign produce

¹ Annual Reports, 1912-16.

imported from Europe. The wood which the natives call *kaku*, a species of *Lophira*, is very hard and durable, and suitable for railway-sleepers. Odum is used for Government buildings, for canoes and tool-handles, and for the famous Ashanti stools. If plenty of sawmills were provided, all that is needed for furniture and other constructive purposes could be supplied on the spot.

(d) *Land Tenure*

The bulk of the land in the Gold Coast belongs to the tribal "stools," and theoretically there is not a single acre without an owner. In actual fact, belts of unoccupied land lie between the territories of neighbouring tribes, and as this land is gradually brought under cultivation from each end numerous boundary disputes arise, and have to be referred to the Supreme Court. In the old days the tribe held the whole of its land in common, but the family which planted a food patch had first claim upon the fruits of its labour. The introduction of permanent cultivation, especially of cocoa, has altered this. Though in theory communal ownership still holds good, in practice the property of the individual is fully recognised, and on his death his plantation passes to the next-of-kin with the rest of his personal effects.

The natives are extremely tenacious of their traditional rights in the land, and proposed measures such as the Crown Lands Bill of 1894 or the Lands Ordinance of 1897 produced quite a literature of protest. The principle of native ownership has been left entirely undisturbed by the Government, which, however, under such acts as the Public Lands Ordinance of 1876 and the Railway Ordinance of 1898, has the right of compulsory acquisition for the service of the Crown on payment of reasonable compensation.

Concessions, or deeds between Europeans and natives as to timber-felling, rubber-collecting, &c., are examined under the Concessions Ordinance of 1900 by the Supreme Court, which after enquiry issues a cer-

tificate of validity, giving the lessee an indefeasible title. The rent is then paid to the native grantor through the Government.

(3) FISHERIES

Fishing is carried on along the coast, in the coastal lagoons of the east, and in the Volta and other large rivers. On the approach of the dry season, when the floods are shrinking, fishermen from the Adda and Kwitta districts go up the Volta in their canoes for distances varying from 150 to 500 miles, building temporary villages in which to smoke and dry their catch, and selling the preserved fish locally or to traders, who can make as much as 300 per cent. profit on sale in the Kumasi markets. Among the fish caught are herring, mackerel, sole, skate and mullet.

(4) MINERALS

(a) *Natural Resources*

The name of the colony shows that in the past gold was its greatest attraction. The first Portuguese adventurer who farmed the Guinea trade received on the expiry of his contract the surname "Mina," and as coat-of-arms "argent three negroes' heads collared or." To-day the value of the cocoa exported exceeds the value of the gold in the proportion of about 3 to 1; but, with that exception, gold remains the greatest of the natural resources of the colony. It is found in conglomerate reefs in the Tarkwa and Birrim districts, in quartz reefs in the Prestea and Axim districts and Ashanti, and in alluvial form in the Ankobra, Pra, Fura, and Ofin Rivers.

A valuable discovery was made in 1916, when manganese was found in large quantities on the Dagwin Extension Concession, 30 miles only from Sekondi, and close to the railway.

Iron ores of good quality are widely distributed as surface deposits; tin and molybdenum ore exist in small quantities in the Winneba district; there is good

bauxite on the Kwahu plateau, and very small quantities of copper, nickel ore and asbestos exist in several places. Salt is obtained by the natives by evaporation or from brine springs. Oil-shales of poor quality, and a little bitumen and heavy oil, are to be found along the western coast. Clay-shales suitable for brick and tile making occur in many places, and there is white marble and other building stone, as well as marble and limestone suited for the manufacture of lime and cement. There are slates and shales of different colours, from which good pigments can be made.

Under the Mining Rights Regulation Ordinance, 1905, amended 1915, the Governor appoints a Secretary for Mines, who supervises the exercise of mining rights within the colony. Regulations under this ordinance, made by the Governor in Council, control work on the surface and underground, the use of machinery and explosives, &c., and direct that every month the responsible manager of each mine shall make a return to the Secretary of the number of tons of ore treated and the number of ounces of gold obtained, and also every three months shall make returns of the number of persons in his employ and the development of his mine.

Under the Mineral Oil Pre-emption Ordinance, 1907, the Government has the right of pre-emption of all crude oil obtained in the colony, and of all products of the refining of such oil.

(b) Output

The conditions of gold-mining in West Africa are difficult, and a good many miscalculations and mistakes were made in the early days of the colony. There have been various dangerous periods, such as the boom after the Ashanti war of 1900, when concessions were taken up recklessly, and the mines fell into disrepute. The present war has resulted in the liquidation of certain companies. Yet, on the whole, the recent history of the industry is not discouraging. Between 1901 and 1915 the steady increase in output was only interrupted

once, in 1910, when certain mines suspended production in order to pay attention to development.

The following figures, taken from the Mining Report for 1916, show the output of gold for every third year from 1901 :—

| Year. | Quantity. | Estimated Value. |
|-------|-----------|------------------|
| | Ozs. | £ |
| 1901 | 5,222 | 22,187 |
| 1904 | 89,096 | 378,480 |
| 1907 | 273,898 | 1,163,516 |
| 1910 | 183,691 | 780,398 |
| 1913 | 388,126 | 1,648,769 |
| 1916 | 383,650 | 1,629,746 |

Work upon the manganese deposits was started in August 1916 by the Wassaw Exploring Syndicate, and by the end of the year 4,258 tons had been shipped.

(c) *Methods of Extraction*

Most of the gold is obtained by mining and crushing, but dredging is also practised in the Ankobra, Pra, Fura, and Ofin Rivers. The following table¹ shows the quantities secured by the two methods in recent years :—

| Year. | By Crushing | By Dredging. |
|-------|-------------|--------------|
| | Ozs. | Ozs. |
| 1913 | 378,819 | 9,307 |
| 1914 | 402,231 | 8,423 |
| 1915 | 398,138 | 5,642 |
| 1916 | 378,785 | 4,866 |

¹ The figures are taken from the Annual Reports, 1913, 1914, 1915, 1916.

The tribes on the coast east of Accra procure salt by evaporating the water of the sea or lagoons, and the people of Daboya, on the White Volta, west of Tamale, get weak brine from springs, and strengthen it with salt obtained by the soaking and evaporation of saliferous sands on the river flat.

(5) OTHER INDUSTRIES

There are few industries besides farming and mining. Hausas resident in the Territories and Ashanti do leather-dressing and make slippers, horse-trappings, purses, &c., and the natives are learning the art from them. Baskets and earthenware pots are made where the raw material is obtainable. Fine goldsmiths' work is done in Ashanti. Spinning and weaving and dyeing are carried on, mainly in the Northern Territories, and silk garments of considerable beauty and value are a speciality of Ashanti.

(6) POWER

At present no waterfalls are used for the generation of power, but it is believed that some of the rapids might be utilised in this way. At Senkye, on the Volta, for instance, the river is said to fall 34 ft. in two furlongs.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

(a) *Towns, Markets, &c.*

The villages of the bush trade with each other in groups, the market moving in turn from one group to another. Some of the larger villages, however, have a daily market.

Kumasi (Coomassie), the capital of Ashanti, has become an important trading centre since the pacification of the kingdom and the completion of the railway. Trade routes converge upon it from north and south,

and many European firms have houses there. In 1911 Kumasi was the second largest town in the Gold Coast, with a population of 18,853. Its estimated population in 1915 was 24,000.

The original European settlements were all made along the coast, and to this day the ports, especially Axim, Sekondi, Cape Coast, Saltpond, Winneba, Accra and Kwitta, remain the chief towns of the southern district. Among these Accra stands first, as the seat of government, with the largest population (19,582 in 1911) and the greatest volume of trade.

There are Chambers of Commerce at Accra, Cape Coast, Tarkwa, Sekondi, and Kumasi.

German firms were established in most of the principal towns. Among the more important were T. Morgan and Son, Schenk and Barber, the German West African Trading Company, Chevalier and Co., Luther and Seyfert, and the Basel and Bremen Missions.

(b) Methods of Economic Penetration

The German manufacturer in the past obtained a hold upon the Gold Coast market mainly by attention to the following three points:—

He put up his samples in such a way that their merits, with prices and conditions of purchase, could be seen at a glance and without effort.

He was ready to make alterations in his wares to meet the wishes of prospective purchasers. The "Benz" motor, for example, which has no advantage in price or quality over British vehicles, was bought because the manufacturers were willing to make alterations when requested to suit the peculiarities of the local roads.

He paid attention to gloss and glitter, which count for much in Gold Coast trade. In beads, for instance, two local firms made it their business to study fashions and keep the manufacturers informed as to the popularity of any special kind.

In these respects the British manufacturer will do well to follow the example of the German, if he wishes to compete on favourable terms.

(2) FOREIGN

(a) Exports

Quantities and Values.—The seaborne trade of the colony is in a very satisfactory state. The report of the Customs and Marine Departments shows that during the last few years the total value of commercial exports, exclusive of Government exports and specie, varied as follows:—

| | £ |
|-------------|-----------|
| 1912 | 4,004,294 |
| 1913 | 5,023,646 |
| 1914 | 4,469,753 |
| 1915 | 5,814,810 |
| 1916 | 5,576,134 |

The slight decrease in 1916 is not a serious matter, when it is remembered that the exports for 1915 represented an increase of £791,168 over 1913, which till then had been the record year.

The branch of trade most capable of rapid expansion is, of course, that in cocoa. The exports for the last five years were as follows:—

| Year. | Quantity. | Value. |
|-------|-----------|-----------|
| | Tons. | £ |
| 1912 | 38,647 | 1,642,733 |
| 1913 | 50,554 | 2,489,218 |
| 1914 | 52,888 | 2,193,749 |
| 1915 | 77,278 | 3,631,341 |
| 1916 | 72,161 | 3,847,720 |

The crops have been steadily increasing, and that for 1917 probably exceeded all previous records, but the amount exported has been affected by the dislocation of

trade and the shortage of shipping. The restriction of the amount imported from the colony into the United Kingdom to 50 per cent. of the import from the colony of the previous twelve months was enforced in February 1917, and caused an acute crisis in the local markets. Cocoa was unsaleable except at quite unremunerative prices. In the first nine months of 1917, 68,247 tons were shipped, but their value was only £2,485,380, as against the £3,847,720 obtained for 72,161 tons the previous year.

The trade in gold has since 1911 shown a steady increase, although in 1916 the export figures showed a decrease, due to the retention of stocks in the colony.

The trade in palm oil, palm kernels, and rubber had been declining for years, and reached its lowest level in 1915. This decay was due partly to bad seasons; partly, after war began, to the loss of the German market; but mainly to the rivalry of the more profitable and less laborious cocoa industry. As has been noted elsewhere, a revival of these three industries began in 1916.

For a table showing the amount and value of the principal exports for every third year between 1907 and 1916 see Table III in the Appendix (pp. 61-2).

It must be remembered that in addition to the sea-borne trade there is a good deal of trade across the inland frontiers and through the Northern Territories, as to which exact statistics are not obtainable. The report on Ashanti for 1915 calls attention to the fact that the cattle trade there depends upon the supply which is allowed to come in from French territory, and that the extension of the French railways behind the Northern Territories may seriously affect this trade by diverting the cattle to the coast.

Countries of Destination.—The United Kingdom has always been the chief customer of the Gold Coast, and remains so, in spite of decreases due to the war. In 1916, 62 per cent. of the total exports went to this country, as against 75 per cent. in 1915 and 68 per cent. in the two previous years. Germany used to rank

second; though even in 1913, when the value of goods exported to that country reached its maximum, it was only 17 per cent. of the whole. The most noticeable recent feature has been the expansion of trade with France and the United States. Exports to France in 1912 stood at £384,219; four years later they had more than trebled, reaching a total of £1,374,815, or 24 per cent., as against 10 per cent. During the same period the percentage shipped to the United States rose from 2 to 12, and the value of goods exported in 1916 was more than eight times the total for 1912. A great deal of cocoa which used to go to America and France *via* the British markets is now shipped direct.

For tables showing the value of goods, exclusive of specie, exported to the principal markets between 1912 and 1916, and the proportion of goods shipped to British and foreign markets, see Table IV in the Appendix (p. 62).

(b) Imports

Quantities and Values. The commercial imports for the five years ending with 1916 were valued as follows:—

| | | | | | £ |
|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----------|
| 1912 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 3,140,786 |
| 1913 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 3,250,673 |
| 1914 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 3,158,171 |
| 1915 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 3,116,686 |
| 1916 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 4,881,920 |

These figures show that the purchasing power of the inhabitants of the Gold Coast has remained very stable. The large increase in 1916 is, of course, partly due to raised prices; but, with the exception of the imports of cotton goods, soap, and gin, the increase in value was accompanied by an increase in quantity. The figures are, therefore, an index to the improved standards of living and commercial prosperity of the buyers.

The quantities and values of the chief articles imported between 1912 and 1916 are shown in Table V in the Appendix (p. 63).

Countries of Origin.—In the Appendix (Table VI, p. 64) will be found a return showing the value of imports, exclusive of specie, from the principal supplying countries between 1912 and 1916, and the percentage of each item to the total imports for the year.

It is not easy from statistics to make any confident generalisation as to the relative position of the countries competing to supply the Gold Coast. The United Kingdom, which before the war held first place, still continues to do so, and has undoubtedly captured a great deal of trade from her rivals. In 1914, for example, when the total increase in the value of imports from all countries was only £80,340, the United Kingdom secured a net increase of £192,078. Between 1910 and 1916 the value of her market in the Gold Coast increased by over a million and a half pounds, yet the percentage of her contribution to the total imports was exactly the same in the latter year as in the former. The only statement which can be made with certainty is that arbitrary conditions incidental to the war have improved what was already an advantageous position, and that it remains to be seen whether British enterprise can render the improvement permanent.

The other striking fact is the steady growth in volume of the import trade from the United States. Some of the quite recent advances, such as the rise in the value of building materials, perfumery, sugar, and provisions in 1916, are directly due to the war, but the process of expansion had begun earlier. In 1910 the value of the goods imported from America was only £20,141; in 1913 it had risen to just over a quarter of a million; in 1916 it was over three-quarters of a million.

The totals of imports shown from each country are rather misleading, because they include goods originating elsewhere, and shipped from that country. Motor vehicles, for example, are mainly of American origin, whether they reach the Gold Coast direct or through the markets of the United Kingdom. Beads used to come mainly from Austria before the war; and British

manufacturers could supply no substitute except imitation coral at high prices. Now Italy supplies them, and the import has risen again, but the increase appears in the statistics as coming from the United Kingdom.

(c) *Customs and Tariffs*

On account of an agreement with Germany, tariffs east and west of the Volta differed till 1915, when they were assimilated.

The only export duty is that of $\frac{1}{4}d.$ per lb. on cocoa, which has been in force since October 1916. It realised in 1916 only £32,568, instead of the £60,000 anticipated, but this was due to temporary conditions.

Specific import duties are paid on 24 articles, of which the most important are ale and porter (2s. per imperial gallon), kerosene and other lamp-oils (3d. per gallon), tobacco (manufactured 1s. 6d. per lb., unmanufactured 1s. per lb., cigars 1s. per 50, cigarettes 9d. per 100), and spirits. The duties on the last vary according to alcoholic strength. They have been raised since March 1915 to 7s. 6d. the proof gallon.

All other imported goods not specifically exempted pay an *ad valorem* duty of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Exemptions apply to 65 articles. Among these are goods imported for Government service; railway plant; agricultural implements and machinery, seeds, plants, and manures; manufacturing, marine, mining, and gold-dredging machinery; West African produce; machinery for preparing native produce and developing native industries, and material for packing native goods: coal, coke, and patent fuel; vehicles of all sorts; trade samples; printed books; and articles needed in the interests of public health, such as crude petroleum for destroying mosquitoes, quinine, and mosquito-netting.

(D) FINANCE

(a) *Public Finance*

The financial condition of the Gold Coast is satisfactory. Its budget shows a steadily rising revenue, de-

rived mainly from Customs duties and the railways. In 1907 the total revenue was £708,718; in 1916, £1,835,989. Expenditure has risen in the same period from £617,124 to £1,465,946, an increase which is encouraging, because it implies extensive public works, growing business in every Department, additional staff and transport charges, all due to the prosperity and development of the colony.

The following table¹ shows the revenue, expenditure, and public debt between 1912 and 1916 :—

| Year. | Revenue. | Expenditure. | Public Debt. |
|-------|-----------|--------------|--------------|
| | £ | £ | £ |
| 1912 | 1,230,851 | 1,157,092 | 2,469,118 |
| 1913 | 1,301,566 | 1,353,291 | 2,449,118 |
| 1914 | 1,331,713 | 1,775,850 | 3,464,118 |
| 1915 | 1,456,130 | 1,627,015 | 3,444,118 |
| 1916 | 1,835,989 | 1,465,946 | 3,424,118 |

The principal heads of revenue in 1913 were as follows :—

| | |
|---|------------|
| | £ |
| Customs | 779,593 |
| Light dues | 2,956 |
| Licences, &c. | 43,354 |
| Fees of Court, &c. | 49,903 |
| Railways | 357,329 |
| Posts and telegraphs | 6,596 |
| Rents of Government land | 1,201 |
| Interest | 3,416 |
| Ashanti | 49,882 |
| Northern Territories | 3,708 |
| Miscellaneous | 3,548 |
| Total | £1,301,486 |
| Land sales, extraordinary revenue | 80 |
| Grand total | £1,301,566 |

¹ Figures taken from the Annual Reports.

(b) Currency

The supply of currency is controlled by the West African Currency Board, which has its headquarters in London.

British gold and silver coins, and the special British West African silver currency, introduced in 1913, are legal tender to any amount. There is also a subsidiary nickel currency, introduced in 1912, with coins of three denominations, viz., one penny, one-half penny, and one-tenth of a penny. These and British bronze coins are legal tender up to one shilling. Experimental issues of West African currency notes for £1 and 10s. were introduced in September 1916, and in January 1917 2s. notes were provided, in view of the popularity of the florin in the Gold Coast. These notes were welcomed by the Europeans and the educated natives, but the more illiterate natives, especially up-country, are still rather reluctant to accept them. A paper currency in Africa has the disadvantage that it is ill-suited to burying, the native's favourite method of preserving his valuables. The amount of these notes in circulation during 1916 was £11,000 in £1 and £3,750 in 10s. notes.

(c) Banking

The Bank of British West Africa opened a business at Accra in 1897, and since then has established branches at Axim, Cape Coast, Kumasi, Komfrodwa, Nsawam, Saltpond, Sekondi, Tarkwa, and Winneba. There was no competition until 1917, when the Colonial Bank began business at Accra and Sekondi.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

The great fact to be borne in mind is that the Gold Coast is a land of promise, many of whose potentialities

were concealed by circumstances until so recent a date that even now they are not generally realised.

No one reading the older and newer books published by officials and others familiar with Gold Coast conditions can fail to be struck by the change of tone produced by the recent developments. In 1883 Colonel A. B. Ellis lamented that, "inhabited by any other race of men, this country would surpass the whole world in agricultural wealth; but, as it is, it is lost to mankind, and there is every probability of its remaining so." Miss Kingsley, writing at the close of the nineteenth century, deplored the difficulties put in the way of British merchants, struggling to secure for British manufactures "the richest feeding-grounds in the whole world." She noted with a mixture of amusement and consternation the tendency of the "old coaster" to pride himself on his miseries and to paint the horrors of his lot in lurid colours to the newcomer.

The more recent literature of the Coast strikes an entirely different note. Mr. W. W. Claridge, Senior Medical Officer, in his *History of the Gold Coast and Ashanti*, published in 1915, writes throughout with sympathy and enthusiasm, and closes with an encouraging picture of the progress made since 1900. Sir Hugh Clifford, in his introduction, dissociates himself from the author's strictures upon the climate, and both there and in other spoken and written utterances shows warm confidence in the qualities of the people and the future of the country committed to his charge.

A climate still unhealthy, though mitigated by increased medical and sanitary precautions; rivers unsuitable for extensive navigation; harbours whose defects can only be moderated, not removed, by modern ingenuity—these are the three factors which hold back the colony. Against them must be set mineral wealth, a fertile soil, and a greater variety of resources than perhaps in any other part of West Africa. Moreover, though the Gold Coast has for centuries been connected with Great Britain, its history as an organized colony is new. The resources of civilization have been brought

to bear on it for only a limited time. If they have already accomplished so much, there is every reason for expecting that greater success lies ahead, and that the colony will prove to be one of the most valuable of England's tropical possessions.

APPENDIX

I. TREATIES

(a) *With Denmark*.—By a Convention of August 17, 1850,¹ Denmark ceded to Great Britain for £10,000 all the Danish forts on the Gold Coast and “all other possessions, property, and territorial rights whatever belonging to His Danish Majesty on the said coast.” By a Declaration of May 9, 1887,² the chiefs of Aquamoo admitted that they were under the British protectorate, on the ground that they had enjoyed Danish protection, and that the right had passed to Britain on the cession of 1850.

(b) *With the Netherlands*.—By a Convention of March 5, 1867,³ it was agreed by Great Britain and the Netherlands that there should be an exchange of the forts and possessions of the two Powers on the Gold Coast, so that the boundary between the British and the Dutch possessions should be fixed at a straight line running north to the Ashanti boundary from the mouth of the Sweet River. By the Treaty of February 25, 1871,⁴ it was agreed that the King of the Netherlands should transfer to the Queen of the United Kingdom “all the rights of sovereignty, jurisdiction, and property which he possesses on the coast of Guinea.” A protocol of November 2, 1871,⁵ provided that if recruitment of free labourers were permitted from British possessions on the coast of Guinea to British colonies, it should equally be permitted to Netherland colonies.

(c) *With Germany*.—On July 14, 1886,⁶ an agreement as to the boundary between Togoland and the Gold Coast was arranged by British and German Commissioners. It was further elaborated in December 1887, and made definitive by notes of March 12 and 14, 1888.⁷ The frontier was definitively laid down

¹ Hertalet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, ii, 608.

² *Ibid.*, ii, 609.

³ *Ibid.*, iii, 977.

⁴ *Ibid.*, iii, 979.

⁵ *Ibid.*, iii, 980.

⁶ Apparently not published.

⁷ Hertalet, iii, 890.

by Article IV of the Anglo-German Treaty of July 1, 1890,¹ from the sea coast up to the junction of the River Daka with the Volta, above which there was to be a neutral zone. By Articles I and V of the Convention of November 14, 1899, the eastern portion of the neutral zone was recognised as German, and the boundary was defined as running along the River Daka to 9° north latitude, whence the frontier was to run north, leaving Morozugu to Great Britain, and to be fixed on the spot by a mixed Commission "in such manner that Gambaga and all the territories of Mamprusi shall fall to Great Britain, and that Yendi and all the territories of Chakosi shall fall to Germany." Arrangements for the delimitation on this basis were made by a Convention of September 26—December 2, 1901;² the work was carried out by a Commission in 1901-2; and the final result adopted by an exchange of notes of June 25, 1904,³ which was slightly modified in 1907 as a result of the actual survey carried out. There was, however, still left undecided the exact boundary between 6° 10' and 6° 20' north latitude. A Convention of February 24, 1894,⁴ established a customs union between the Gold Coast Colony east of the Volta and Togoland; but this terminated on the motion of Germany on April 30, 1904.

(d) *With France*.—By Article III (1) of the Anglo-French Agreement of August 10, 1889,⁵ it was agreed that the western boundary should start from Newtown, and proceed by the left bank of the Tendo and Ahy Lagoons and the Tendo River as far as Nugua, and that it should be prolonged thence, in accordance with the treaties made with native chiefs by the two Powers, to the 9° north latitude. By the further Agreement of June 26, 1891,⁶ the line was to be drawn from Nugua *viâ* Bonko to the intersection of the Volta by the road from Bandaghadi to Kirhindi, and then along the Volta to 9° north latitude. The exact definition of the proposed line was laid down by an arrangement of July 12, 1893,⁷ which definitely ascribed Nugua to France. It was definitely traced out with slight changes by Agreements of February 1, April 23, and May 11, 1903,⁸ which defined the boundary of the Gold Coast and the Ivory Coast from Nugua to 9°, and were finally accepted by an exchange of notes of May 11 and 15, 1905.⁹ The boundary from 9° was determined by Article I of the Anglo-

¹ Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, iii, 893.

² *Ibid.*, iii, 927.

³ *Ibid.*, iii, 935 (which gives the alterations made in 1907).

⁴ *Ibid.*, iii, 915.

⁵ *Ibid.*, ii, 730.

⁶ *Ibid.*, ii, 744.

⁷ *Ibid.*, ii, 754.

⁸ *Ibid.*, ii, 803, 806.

⁹ *Ibid.*, ii, 832.

French Treaty of June 14, 1898,¹ as following the Volta to 11° north latitude; then past Sapeliga to the River Nuhau, along that river to a point two miles east of the Gambaga—Tenkrugu road, thence to the intersection with 11° of the road from Sansanné-Mango to Pama. This general description was made precise, with minor modifications, by an exchange of notes of March 18 and April 25, 1904,² and a further Agreement of May 24 and July 19, 1906.³

II. GOLD COAST SHIPPING, 1912-1916⁴

| Nationality. | 1912. | | 1913. | | 1914. | | 1915. | | 1916. | |
|--------------------------|-------|---------|-------|---------|-------|---------|-------|---------|-------|---------|
| | No. | Tons. | No. | Tons. | No. | Tons. | No. | Tons. | No. | Tons. |
| British ... | 398 | 827,390 | 403 | 907,065 | 419 | 946,093 | 289 | 687,167 | 283 | 642,346 |
| German ... | 223 | 500,998 | 229 | 499,872 | 161 | 362,292 | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| French ... | 64 | 118,951 | 55 | 99,084 | 54 | 102,257 | 60 | 118,156 | 55 | 122,237 |
| Belgian ... | 1 | 1,167 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 2 | 9,582 | ... | ... |
| Norwegian ... | ... | ... | 1 | 864 | 2 | 2,223 | ... | ... | 1 | 14 |
| United States of America | ... | ... | 1 | 2,288 | ... | ... | 1 | 1,086 | 1 | 1,718 |
| Italian ... | ... | ... | 2 | 3,776 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Danish ... | ... | ... | 1 | 2,448 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Portuguese ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | 44 | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| Spanish ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | 832 | ... | ... |
| Barbados ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 | 1,583 | ... | ... |

III. PRINCIPAL EXPORTS, 1907-1916⁵

| Article. | 1907. | | 1910. | |
|------------------|-------------------|-----------|-------------------|-----------|
| | Quantity. | Value. | Quantity. | Value. |
| Cocoa ... | 20,956,400 lbs. | £ 515,089 | 50,692,949 lbs. | £ 866,671 |
| Kola Nuts ... | 6,278 packgs. | 78,901 | 5,156,500 " | 77,716 |
| Guinea Grain ... | 87,074 lbs. | 1,127 | 48,645 " | 882 |
| Gum Copal ... | 398,363 " | 5,134 | 53,847 " | 647 |
| Lumber ... | 18,526,348 feet | 169,458 | 14,935,935 feet | 148,077 |
| Palm Kernels ... | 9,753 tons | 101,822 | 14,182 tons | 185,058 |
| Palm Oil ... | 1,867,945 gallons | 119,468 | 2,044,945 gallons | 161,388 |
| Rubber ... | 3,549,548 lbs. | 333,120 | 3,223,265 lbs. | 356,876 |
| Cotton ... | 56,088 " | 966 | 11,421 " | 263 |
| Copra ... | 386 tons | 6,196 | 755 tons | 13,032 |
| Gold ... | 292,125 ounces | 1,130,975 | 204,618 ounces | 790,262 |

¹ Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, ii, 786.

² *Ibid.*, ii, 822.

³ *Ibid.*, ii, 847.

⁴ These figures are taken from the Annual Reports. They do not include sailing vessels (see p. 30).

⁵ The figures are taken from the Report of the Agricultural Department, 1916, and the Report of the Customs and Marine Departments, 1916.

III. PRINCIPAL EXPORTS, 1907-1916—(continued).

| Article. | 1913. | | 1916. | |
|---------------------|------------------|-------------|-----------------|-------------|
| | Quantity. | Value. | Quantity. | Value. |
| Cocoa | 113,239,980 lbs. | £ 2,489,218 | 72,161 tons | £ 3,847,720 |
| Kola Nuts | 7,024,868 " | 144,705 | 6,742,898 lbs. | 130,571 |
| Guinea Grain | 41,036 " | 708 | 2,360 " | 38 |
| Gum Copal | 38,205 " | 555 | 12,594 " | 132 |
| Lumber | 37,391,848 feet | 366,094 | 10,334,793 feet | 93,980 |
| Palm Kernels | 9,744 tons | 159,128 | 5,867 tons | 86,899 |
| Palm Oil... .. | 860,155 gallons | 65,652 | 450,360 gallons | 38,299 |
| Rubber | 1,317,369 lbs. | 87,915 | 2,215,973 lbs. | 78,865 |
| Cotton | 27,497 " | 688 | 18,896 " | 447 |
| Copra | 629 tons | 14,292 | 633 tons | 14,386 |
| Gold | 422,602 ounces | 1,626,003 | 315,871 ounces | 1,200,868 |

IV.—RETURN SHOWING THE DESTINATIONS OF EXPORTS BETWEEN 1912 AND 1916,¹ AND THE PERCENTAGE OF EACH COUNTRY'S GOODS TO THE TOTAL EXPORTS FOR THE YEAR.

| Country. | 1912. | | 1913. | | 1914. | | 1915. | | 1916. | |
|----------------------|-------------|-----|-------------|-----|-------------|----|-------------|-----|-------------|-----|
| | Value. | % | Value. | % | Value. | % | Value. | % | Value. | % |
| United Kingdom | £ 2,677,575 | 67 | £ 3,416,637 | 68 | £ 3,028,997 | 68 | £ 4,370,377 | 75 | £ 3,453,888 | 62 |
| Nigeria | 133,977 | 3 | 145,023 | 3 | 141,968 | 3 | 139,247 | 2 | 130,913 | 2 |
| Germany | 731,122 | 18 | 899,468 | 17 | 554,632 | 12 | ... | ... | ... | ... |
| France | 384,219 | 10 | 455,585 | 9 | 528,780 | 12 | 963,634 | 16 | 1,374,815 | 24 |
| United States | 72,135 | 2 | 101,055 | 2 | 93,383 | 2 | 329,466 | 6 | 603,772 | 12 |
| Holland | ... | ... | ... | ... | 116,948 | 3 | ... | ... | ... | ... |

If these figures are combined, to show the proportion of goods shipped to British and foreign markets, the results work out as follows:—

| Country. | 1912. | | 1913. | | 1914. | | 1915. | | 1916. | |
|------------------------------------|-------------|----|-------------|----|-------------|----|-------------|----|-------------|----|
| | Value. | % | Value. | % | Value. | % | Value. | % | Value. | % |
| Great Britain and British colonies | £ 2,811,552 | 70 | £ 3,561,660 | 71 | £ 3,170,965 | 71 | £ 4,509,624 | 77 | £ 2,584,801 | 64 |
| Other countries ... | 1,187,476 | 30 | 1,456,108 | 28 | 1,293,743 | 29 | 1,293,100 | 22 | 1,978,587 | 36 |

¹ From the Annual Report, 1916.

V. TABLE OF PRINCIPAL IMPORTS, 1912-1916¹

| Article. | Weight or Measure. | 1912. | | 1913. | | 1914. | | 1915. | | 1916. | |
|-------------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------|-------------|-----------|-------------|-----------|-------------|-----------------|-------------|-----------------|-------------|
| | | Quantity. | Value. £ | Quantity. | Value. £ | Quantity. | Value. £ | Quantity. | Value. £ | Quantity. | Value. £ |
| Ale and porter | gallons | 122,087 | 20,742 | 148,553 | 21,991 | 151,152 | 22,765 | 119,671 | 20,026 | 148,259 | 30,307 |
| Apparel, wearing | ... | ... | 103,914 | ... | 91,555 | ... | 107,014 | ... | 84,608 | ... | 152,898 |
| Beads | ... | ... | 44,649 | ... | 47,383 | ... | 38,134 | ... | 8,506 | ... | 36,066 |
| Beef and pork | barrels | ... | 10,936 | 4,816 | 13,893 | 9,075 | 29,404 | lbs. 809,868 | 18,782 | lbs. 1,050,506 | 21,867 |
| Bread and biscuits | cwts. | 32,067 | 31,497 | 35,013 | 46,386 | 15,057 | 19,760 | 12,405 | 22,129 | 9,255 | 18,076 |
| Carriages, carts and motor vehicles | tons | 636 | 31,497 | 1,169 | 53,033 | 929 | 79,247 | 515 | 96,175 | 3,681 | 179,130 |
| Coal | ... | 43,013 | 67,516 | 51,666 | 84,475 | 68,031 | 139,228 | 42,751 | 83,193 | 38,346 | 87,673 |
| Cotton (yarn and twist) | lbs. | 485,278 | 28,477 | 419,423 | 21,324 | 254,583 | 15,689 | 198,016 | 10,076 | 247,287 | 20,166 |
| Cotton goods (other) | ... | ... | 689,146 | ... | 704,206 | ... | 602,594 | lbs. 13,194,826 | 739,462 | lbs. 10,703,826 | 1,038,186 |
| Flour | barrels | 43,648 | 67,348 | 53,824 | 79,575 | 47,007 | 68,125 | ... | 76,515 | 69,367 | 89,243 |
| Furniture | ... | ... | 39,183 | ... | 47,841 | ... | 56,758 | ... | 50,505 | ... | 68,471 |
| Hardware | ... | ... | 109,720 | ... | 121,064 | ... | 120,985 | ... | 87,946 | ... | 174,799 |
| Lumber | feet | 4,058,383 | 40,423 | 6,304,397 | 54,826 | 5,226,540 | 64,415 | 4,883,063 | 50,302 | 2,904,125 | 41,282 |
| Machinery | ... | ... | 245,861 | ... | 190,557 | ... | 195,911 | ... | 172,323 | ... | 115,971 |
| Oil | gallons | 1,257,560 | 36,463 | 1,189,659 | 38,145 | 1,324,151 | 43,348 | 945,453 | 28,822 | 1,298,441 | 44,314 |
| Petroleum | ... | ... | 44,326 | ... | 43,346 | ... | 44,421 | ... | 35,785 | ... | 102,916 |
| Provisions | ... | ... | 106,926 | ... | 239,624 | ... | 248,787 | ... | 182,100 | ... | 335,317 |
| Railway plant and rolling-stock | ... | ... | 2,386 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 47,545 | ... | 74,107 |
| Rice | cwts. | 146,618 | 106,888 | 159,636 | 111,233 | 146,816 | 96,578 | 154,057 | 119,144 | 106,664 | 105,192 |
| Salt | cwts. | 103,952 | 12,751 | ... | ... | ... | ... | 106,560 | 18,352 | 111,903 | 25,853 |
| Silk goods | ... | ... | 29,375 | ... | 22,229 | ... | 22,109 | ... | 13,094 | ... | 13,458 |
| Soap | lbs. | 5,295,826 | 43,964 | 6,174,651 | 50,206 | 6,023,915 | 53,339 | ... | 67,614 | ... | 71,748 |
| Spirits (gin and Geneva) | gallons | 578,675 | 84,852 | 538,868 | 84,367 | 573,682 | 86,215 | cwts. 67,439 | 88,074 | cwts. 59,581 | 130,602 |
| Spirits (rum) | gallons | 1,224,475 | 106,537 | 1,153,456 | 100,093 | 1,093,076 | 98,241 | 502,171 | 100,346 | 489,667 | 162,308 |
| Spirits (other) | gallons | 50,028 | 28,878 | 50,854 | 29,742 | 53,553 | 31,061 | 989,083 | 27,355 | 82,407 | 61,876 |
| Sugar | cwts. | 38,227 | 45,460 | 38,987 | 56,614 | 47,787 | 64,058 | 39,190 | 48,082 | 34,974 | 73,517 |
| Tobacco (manufactured) | lbs. | 147,452 | 42,423 | 170,810 | 49,134 | 208,745 | 64,658 | 19,536 | 45,042 | 130,550 | 130,550 |
| Tobacco (unmanufactured) | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 2,312,464 | 80,811 | 1,964,895 | 76,772 |
| Wines | gallons | 88,090 | 24,492 | 70,911 | 21,455 | 67,282 | 21,010 | 38,414 | 14,300 | 58,998 | 33,046 |

¹ From the Annual Reports, 1912-1916.

VI.—A RETURN SHOWING THE PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN FOR IMPORTS, 1912-1916, AND THE PERCENTAGE OF EACH ITEM TO THE TOTAL IMPORTS FOR THE YEAR.¹

| Country. | 1912. | | 1913. | | 1914. | | 1915. | | 1916. | |
|---------------------|-----------|----|-----------|----|-----------|----|-----------|-----|-----------|-----|
| | Value. | % | Value. | % | Value. | % | Value. | % | Value. | % |
| | £ | | £ | | £ | | £ | | £ | |
| United Kingdom ... | 2,317,732 | 70 | 2,468,604 | 70 | 2,660,682 | 74 | 2,734,991 | 79 | 3,860,765 | 75 |
| Nigeria ... | 18,314 | 1 | 23,535 | 1 | 24,312 | 1 | 36,351 | 1 | 75,902 | 2 |
| Germany ... | 379,027 | 11 | 386,670 | 11 | 289,288 | 8 | 9,839 | ... | 128 | ... |
| France ... | 42,604 | 1 | 44,299 | 1 | 32,979 | 1 | 37,285 | 1 | 77,089 | 2 |
| United States ... | 229,604 | 7 | 261,742 | 7 | 270,176 | 8 | 349,106 | 10 | 751,225 | 15 |
| Holland ... | 182,965 | 6 | 189,165 | 5 | 170,810 | 5 | 199,644 | 6 | 217,976 | 4 |
| Other countries ... | 109,574 | 3 | 124,964 | 4 | 121,072 | 3 | 95,588 | 3 | 81,759 | 2 |

¹ From the Annual Report, 1916.

AUTHORITIES

HISTORICAL

A standard work on the Colony and Protectorate has lately been written, *A History of the Gold Coast and Ashanti*, by W. Walton Claridge, with an Introduction by the Governor, Sir Hugh Clifford, 2 vols., John Murray, 1915. See also *The Partition of Africa*, No. 89, and *British West Africa*, No. 90 of this series.

ECONOMIC

(i) OFFICIAL

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

NIGERIA is situated on the shore of the Gulf of Guinea and extends inland to the borders of the Sahara. It is bounded on the west by the French colony of Dahomey, on the north-west and north by the French Military Territory of the Niger, and on the east by Cameroon. Its total area is estimated at 336,000 square miles. Its extreme limits are $4^{\circ} 15'$ and $13^{\circ} 56'$ north latitude and $2^{\circ} 40'$ and $14^{\circ} 10'$ east longitude.

The boundary on the west starts at the point where the meridian $2^{\circ} 40'$ east (passing through the middle of the Ajara (or Igiri) river, where it flows into the Porto Novo lagoon) meets the coast. It runs northward to a few miles beyond the ninth parallel, following the upper waters of the Okpara from a little distance south of the eighth parallel, and then turns in a somewhat more easterly direction to the Niger, reaching that river at a point 10 miles above the town of Giri, which is the port of Ilo. The line is continued northward to about $13^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, where it turns eastward, and thence pursues an irregular course, generally between the thirteenth and fourteenth parallels, to the Komadugu Yobe (Waube) river, which it follows to Bosso, on the bank of Lake Chad. It is prolonged about 21 miles due east into the middle of the lake, and then turns south-east, till at $13^{\circ} 5'$ north latitude it meets the boundary between French Equatorial Africa and Cameroon. From this point it marches with the

frontier of Cameroon to the coast. In its northerly portion, from Lake Chad to the point at which it crosses the Benue river, it follows the valleys of the Yedseram, Kilunga, and Tiel. At the Benue it forms the 'Yola arc', described artificially to the east of the town of Yola, and then follows a delimited line south-westward to a point a few miles south of the sixth parallel, on the Cross River. It then runs a little west of south to the sea, following the Akwayafe in the last part of its course (see *Cameroon*, No. 111 of this series).

The frontiers between British and French territory have been considerably modified on various occasions. The position of the western section from the coast to the ninth parallel was settled by an Agreement of October 19, 1906, and the same Agreement accepted the findings of an Anglo-French Commission which had in 1900 delimited the frontier from the ninth parallel to the Niger. East of the Niger, the position of the frontier was settled in outline by a Convention signed at London on May 29, 1906. The actual delimitation was carried out by an Anglo-French Commission, whose work was concluded in 1910 and approved in an exchange of notes the following year. The frontier with Cameroon rests upon an Agreement of November 15, 1893. An Anglo-German Commission of delimitation sat in 1903-4, and the result of its work was embodied in an Agreement signed in London on March 19, 1906. The delimitation of the portion of the frontier from the Yola arc to the coast was not accepted by both Governments till March 11, 1913.

(2) SURFACE, COAST, AND RIVER SYSTEM

Surface

Generally speaking, the surface of Nigeria rises from the low coastal plains to the highlands of the interior, and then falls towards the Sahara. Within this area

five regions may be distinguished—the coastal belt ; the southern lowlands, with extensions north-east along the valley of the Benue and north-west along the valley of the Niger ; the southern highlands, to east and west of the lowlands ; the central highlands, with the Bauchi plateau ; and the high plains of the north-west and north-east, in Sokoto, east Kano, and Bornu.

The *coastal belt* varies in width from 3 to 60 miles. In the west the shore is fringed by a system of lagoons, which are being gradually converted into mud flats by the sediment brought down by rivers from the interior. Farther east comes the huge delta of the Niger, composed almost entirely of alluvial deposits, while east of this again lie delta lands round the estuary of the Cross River. The whole region is a network of rivers, creeks, and swamps, bordered by dense vegetation, while virgin forest covers the intervening stretches of dry ground.

The *southern lowlands*, in the middle part of the Southern Provinces, do not as a rule exceed 650 ft. in height, though the northern portion is higher and more undulating than the southern. The river valleys have exceedingly steep slopes, and the course of the streams is often diverted by accumulations of sand. Similar but rather higher lowlands lie along both sides of the Benue and its tributary the Gongola. Here the valleys are shallow and the plains have a gentle slope, only relieved by occasional hummocks of grit or sandstone. The lowlands also continue along the Niger and the lower Benue, but there vary more in character. To the east of the Niger, south of Kontagora, are low, flat-topped sandstone hills, rising singly or in groups above the general level, and separated by deep and narrow valleys. In the region of the confluence of the two rivers the characteristic features are extended

tabular ridges, low, well-wooded hills, and shallow, flat-bottomed valleys with stony slopes. To the west of the Niger there are rolling, sandy plains, varied by isolated hills or groups of hills.

The *southern highlands* lie east and west of the southern lowlands. The eastern portion consists of a belt of crystalline rock running north-eastward from the Oban Hills near the coast through the Munshi district into the strip of land between the Benue plains and the eastern frontier. The highest peaks of the Oban Hills are east of Ibum, and rise to over 3,000 ft. The Sukwala Mountains, north of the Cross river, attain a height of 6,300 ft. The Shebshi Hills, the most northerly portion of these highlands, are of volcanic origin, and are more rugged and diversified than the ranges to the south. On the opposite side of Nigeria, in the old Lagos Colony, are the high plains of Yorubaland, lying about 1,200–1,500 ft. above sea-level. Detached hills and rounded granite 'turtle-backs' rise above the undulating surface to heights varying from 50 to 800 ft. The same type of scenery prevails in Ibadan and Ilorin, and extends northward almost to the Niger at Jebba.

The *central highlands* consist of a massif of crystalline rock, covered by drift or travelled alluvium. They extend as a series of smooth or gently undulating plains over a great part of the Northern Provinces, and in the south-west part of the province of Bauchi rise to a plateau of over 3,500 ft. in height. This plateau is an undulating, swampy, alluvial region, forming the hydrographical centre of the country. It is diversified by jagged granite ridges, whereas in the lower portions of this region the hills are rounded, with a number of *inselberge*, or isolated granite domes.

The *high plains* lie to the north-east and north-west of the central highlands. The eastern group, in the

Lake Chad basin, cover the eastern part of Kano and almost the whole of Bornu ; their general height is less than 1,200 ft., but on their southern margin they rise in places to 1,500–1,800 ft. Their surface is gently undulating, varied only by ridges of loose, sandy drift, and shallow watercourses. Extensive tracts become swampy in the wet season. The western group lie round Sokoto, in the district drained by the Kebbi, Jega, and other rivers. Their height is over 1,200 ft. to the east of Sokoto, but less to the west.

Coast

The coast of Nigeria is about 500 miles in length, and has been built up by the deposits of the Niger and other rivers. It is low and swampy, and in the west fringed by lagoons. Approaching from the west, the first permanent break in the coast-line is at Lagos, where a narrow entrance leads into the Lagos lagoon connected with the Lekki lagoon farther east. Eastward again comes the Niger delta, through which flow several large rivers besides the numerous outlets of the Niger itself. All these rivers bring down quantities of sand, which forms bars at their mouths. Named from west to east, the chief indentations in this part of the coast are the mouths of the Benin and Forcados rivers, the Nun entrance to the Niger, and the broad bay into which the New Calabar and Bonny Rivers flow. The estuary of the latter extends inland as an inlet of the sea for about 30 miles. The mouth of the Opobo marks the eastern limit of the Niger delta. Finally, in the extreme east, there is the large estuary of the Cross River, into which flows the Old Calabar.

River System

By far the greater part of Nigeria lies in the basin of the River Niger. In the north-east, however, large

stretches of country fall within the drainage area of Lake Chad, and in the south there are many rivers, mostly of minor importance, watering the coast east and west of the Niger delta. These latter are connected by numerous creeks and channels with the lagoons of the west and with the branches of the Niger delta.

The Niger enters British territory near Ilo on the western frontier, and flows in a generally south-easterly direction as far as Lokoja, receiving numerous tributaries, of which the most important, flowing in from the east, are the Kebbi, Malenda, Kontagora, Kaduna, Bako, and Gurara. In this portion of its course the river flows alternately through wide plains and narrow gorges. From Ilo to Yelwa and from Jebba to the confluence of the Kaduna plains and swamps prevail, whereas below Bussa there is a rocky gorge 75 miles in length, and gorges occur again between Baro and Kotonkarifi. At Lokoja the Niger receives its largest tributary, the Benue, which has a course of nearly 500 miles before its confluence with the main river. This stream enters Nigeria about 30 miles north-east of Yola, and flows south-westward to Lokoja, receiving many tributaries, of which the Gongola is the most important. It has a broad and sandy channel, and flows through plains which are widely flooded during the rains. From Lokoja the Niger turns due south, and between Idah and Abo traverses flat, open country. Abo is the head of the delta, 95 miles from the mouth of the Nun, one of the numerous branches into which the Niger divides below Abo. These outlets extend over nearly 250 miles of coast-line, and some of them are as much as a mile in breadth.

The floods of the Niger are peculiar. At its headwaters the heavy tropical rains cause the river to reach its greatest height about August, but the effect of this is not felt at Ilo till the following year. Meanwhile,

the summer rainfall in the Northern Provinces and adjacent territories has caused a powerful flood, and high water is therefore reached at Ilo about the end of August and at Lokoja about the middle of September. The river then begins to fall, but by this time the earlier flood is beginning to make its influence felt, and continues to do so till about March of the following year, so that the fall is not so rapid as it would be if affected by local conditions only. The Benue is also in flood in September, and this tends to raise the height of the Niger below Lokoja in the latter part of the year. In May the river is at its lowest.

(3) CLIMATE

The climatic divisions of Nigeria are determined by the amount and distribution of rainfall rather than by the temperature, which is uniformly high throughout the country.

Rainfall.—In the extreme south rain falls at all seasons of the year, but December and January are usually the driest months. The amount of precipitation then increases until July, which is as a rule the wettest month of the year. Following on this a well-marked minimum is developed in August. There is a second rainy period, which reaches a maximum, usually lower than that of the first, in September. In October and November the rainfall rapidly decreases. The total precipitation varies with position and distance from the coast. At Lagos it is 71·4 in. (1,814 mm.), at Bonny 160·1 in. (4,067 mm.), at Calabar 126·5 in. (3,215 mm.), and at Benin 91·6 in. (2,327 mm.).

In the northern part of the Southern Provinces and in the southern part of the Northern, the seasonal distribution is somewhat different. From November to February little or no rain falls. The first rainy period reaches its maximum in May or June, and this is followed by a well-marked minimum in June, July,

or August. The second period reaches a maximum, usually higher than that of the first, in September. The annual precipitation is less than farther south; at Lokoja it is 45.8 in. (1,164 mm.), at Baro 46.9 in. (1,190 mm.), and at Ibi 45.3 in. (1,152 mm.).

In the central and northern parts of the Northern Provinces there are two seasons only. The dry season, in which practically no rain falls, lasts from the end of October till the end of March. The maximum fall of the wet season is usually reached in August. The total precipitation is relatively low and decreases rapidly towards the north. At Keffi it is 41.3 in. (1,050 mm.), at Kano 32.3 in. (821 mm.), and at Sokoto 25.2 in. (641 mm.).

Temperature.—Over the whole country the temperature is remarkably uniform, being as a rule highest in March or April, and lowest in August or September. In the former period the monthly mean is between 80° F. and 85° F. (about 28° C.), and in the latter between 75° F. and 80° F. (about 25° C.). On the whole the annual mean tends to rise towards the more open spaces of the north. At Lagos it is 79° F. (26° C.), and at Zungeru about 81° F. (27° C.). The daily range, especially in the north, is considerable.

During the rainy season the winds generally blow from the south-west. The dry season, on the other hand, is marked by the *harmattan*, which comes from the north-east and causes rapid evaporation. On the coast, land and sea breezes alternate regularly during the dry season.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

Partly owing to the neglect of necessary sanitary precautions, the native death-rate is high. Malaria is one of the most prevalent diseases in the south, while leprosy and small-pox are common in the Mohammedan states. Dysentery, pneumonia, intestinal complaints,

and venereal diseases are widespread. Sleeping-sickness is known to exist in the Benue plains, but is not epidemic and shows no sign of spreading. Yellow fever and plague sometimes occur in the south.

Among Europeans malaria is the chief cause of sickness and death, and blackwater fever is not infrequent. The death-rate varies from year to year, but seems on the whole to be falling, although it is still relatively high.

Within recent years much has been done to improve health conditions in the country. The native population has been encouraged to adopt better methods of sanitation and to take precautions against malaria; the practice of vaccination is spreading; and cases of sleeping-sickness, when detected, are isolated and carefully observed. Over so large an area, however, and with a population varying so much in civilization, progress must necessarily be slow.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

Race

The population of Nigeria is extremely heterogeneous. The fundamental type is that of the negro, found in its purest form in the Niger delta and the forests of the south. Farther north, on the savanna lands, are negroid peoples, of mixed negro and Berber blood, the former strain predominating. Lastly, in the northernmost provinces, there are the Fulani, also the product of an intermingling of negritic and Berber stocks, but with the Berber element strongly in the ascendant.

(a) *Negroes*.—There are an enormous number of negro tribes, of which the more important are as follows:

Coastal and Delta Negroes.—In the west the Ijebu live round the lagoons and on the coastal plains. Farther along the coast the Jekri occupy the country between the lower courses of the Benue and Warri. To the

north of them are the Sobo, while in the delta proper between the Nun and the Forcado live the important tribe of the Ijo. East of the Nun estuary the coastal districts are occupied by the Brass and the country farther inland by the Oru. The Ibani are settled round and to the north of Bonny, and the Andoni inhabit the coast between Bonny and Opobo. From the Kwa-ibo to the Cross River the coastal districts are inhabited by the Ibeno, while a considerable area farther inland is in the possession of the Ibibio. East of the Cross River, the Efik live in and around Calabar, the Kwa near the coast, and the Ekkoi farther to the north-east.

Negroes of the Southern Forests.—In this region the chief tribe are the Ibo, who occupy the northern part of the country between the Niger and the Cross River. In the same districts dwell the Aro. North of the Ibo, the chief tribes south of the Benue are the Munshi and Okpoto. Bassa and Kakonda dwell in the country round the confluence of the Benue and the Niger. West of the Niger, near Benin, are people known as Bini. The Yoruba of the Lagos hinterland may also be included among typical negro peoples, although they possess some Berber blood.

Negroes of the Central Hills.—Here the tribes are very numerous; it is said that in the 25,000 square miles round Bauchi no less than sixty-four languages and dialects are spoken. In the hill country to the south of the Benue the inhabitants are also negroes. The Zumperi between the Gamana and the Katsena belong to this group.

(b) *Negroid Peoples.*—The origin of these people probably is to be found in a blending of immigrants from the desert with an aboriginal negro race. The Kanuri settled in Bornu and became one of the most enlightened native races of the northern plains. The Nupe live on the middle Niger, where the valley widens between Egga and Jebba. The Hausa are

widespread throughout the region which bears their name, but it is doubtful whether all the people who speak Hausa and are generally reckoned as being of Hausa extraction belong to this ethnic group. The Kebbawa of Argunga and the Katsenawa of Katsena both speak Hausa, but are said to belong to very different tribes.

(c) *The Fulani*.—The origin of the Fulani is obscure. The true Fula is not of negroid type, but has a fair complexion, regular features, and long, straight hair. The Fulani first came as a pastoral people, and even to-day a few nomad Fulani or Borroroje wander throughout the country. Others, however, settled down in the Hausa towns and gradually took control of the government. These settled Fulani, or Filanen Gidda, as they are locally called, are gradually intermingling with the Yoruba, Hausa, and other peoples among whom they dwell and are consequently much less pure in blood than the Borroroje. The former are of fine physique and are intelligent and enterprising, while the latter are small and wiry but lack initiative and intelligence.

Language

The various languages spoken by the negro peoples belong to the Sudanese family. The dialects of the Ibibio tongue used by the Ibibio, Efik, and Kwa are practically identical, and Andoni belongs to the same group. Ijo in one or other of its forms is spoken by the Ibani, the Brass, and the Oru as well as by the Ijo themselves. The Ibo people are widespread, and accordingly a number of different dialects have developed. On the Bauchi plateau some of the natives have a speech which is full of clicks and gutturals, possibly due to some early admixture of Bushman blood.

All the tribes of the Northern Provinces who have

come under the rule of the Fulani speak Hausa, considered by some authorities to be a Hamitic language, which is rapidly becoming the trade language of a large part of Nigeria. The Fulani peoples speak Fula, which is believed to represent the very old form of speech from which the existing Hamitic languages have been derived. It has, however, distinct affinities with the Bantu family of languages.

(6) POPULATION

Distribution

The population of Nigeria is estimated at 17 millions, which gives an average density of 50 to the square mile. Distribution, however, is by no means uniform. In the Southern Provinces there are about 100 persons to the square mile, in the central and southern parts of the Northern Provinces only 23, and in the northern districts 57. The eastern part of the Southern Provinces is the most densely populated, with 115 to the square mile, whereas in the western portion there are only 75 per square mile. The districts bordering the Niger in the southern parts of the Northern Provinces have an average of 14 persons to the square mile, but in the hills and the Benue plains the density is about twice as great. In the north, the fertile province of Kano has 118 to the square mile, Sokoto 40, and Bornu only 20.

In 1914 the European population numbered about 3,000, of whom one-third were officials.

Towns and Villages

The population is in the main rural, but many large towns exist. Of these the most important are (in the Northern Provinces) Lokoja, Ilorin, Yola, Bauchi, Zaria, Kano, and Sokoto; and (in the Southern Provinces and Colony) Lagos, Abeokuta, Ibadan, Oyo, Calabar, Bonny, and Benin.

NOTE ON THE ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

Owing to the rearrangements that have taken place in Nigeria the divisional nomenclature has become rather confusing.

In 1906 the old Colony of Lagos became, with somewhat modified boundaries, the Colony of Southern Nigeria. At the same time the Lagos Protectorate was merged in the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria, which from that date comprised three provinces, the Western Province or Lagos, the Central or Niger, and the Eastern or Calabar.

In 1914 took place the amalgamation of Northern and Southern Nigeria, which were thenceforth known respectively as the Northern Provinces and Southern Provinces of the Protectorate of Nigeria. At the same time the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria was split up into nine provinces: the old Western Province into Abeokuta, Ibadan, and Ijebu; the old Central Province into Benin and Onitsha; and the old Eastern Province into Warri, Owerri, Calabar, and Ogoja (some considerable modification, however, being made in the boundaries).

The Colony of Nigeria, a district of 1,400 square miles round the town of Lagos, had in 1914 a population of 166,000. The Southern Provinces include an area of 78,600 square miles, with a population estimated the same year at 7,750,000. The Northern Provinces cover an area of 255,700 square miles, with a population estimated at 9,250,000.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1861. First acquisition of Lagos.
- 1879. Formation of United Africa Company.
- 1882. National African Company formed to take over business of United Africa Company.
- 1885. Proclamation of Protectorate over Niger Coast.
- 1886. Charter to National African Company as the Royal Niger Company.
- 1889, 1890, 1896, 1898, 1904, 1906. Principal Anglo-French Boundary Agreements.
- 1890, 1893, 1902, 1906. Principal Anglo-German Boundary Agreements.
- 1899-1900. Territories of Royal Niger Company taken over by the Crown.
- 1906. Union of Lagos and Southern Nigeria.
- 1914. Union of Southern and Northern Nigeria.

(1) *Growth of the Colony*

THE Colony and Protectorate of Nigeria represent the amalgamation of three territories for a considerable period administered separately and in different manners, viz. the Colony and Protectorate of Lagos, the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria, and the Protectorate of Northern Nigeria. The two former were amalgamated in 1906; and the final amalgamation of the three territories took place on January 1, 1914.

(2) *Lagos*

The oldest of these territories was Lagos, the history of which begins with the cession to Great Britain of the port and territories of Lagos by the local king in 1861, the occupation of the port having been found desirable in carrying out the suppression of the slave-trade, of which it formed a head-quarters. Further cessions of

territory were obtained shortly afterwards; and a series of treaties made between 1890 and 1895 extended a British protectorate over a considerable area inland. The settlement of the French at Porto Novo, which took place in 1863 and was revived in 1883, led to the necessity of defining the western limits of the British sphere; and this was carried out by agreements of 1889, 1890, 1896, 1898, 1904, 1906, and finally disposed of by an exchange of notes on February 18, 1914.¹ From 1861 to 1866 Lagos was administered as a separate Crown Colony. As the result of the report of the Parliamentary Committee of 1865, it was in 1866 associated with Sierra Leone. In 1874 it was connected with the Gold Coast, and in 1886 it became again a separate Crown Colony. It now forms, with somewhat modified boundaries, the Colony of Nigeria, while the former Protectorate is included in the Southern Provinces of the Protectorate of Nigeria.

(3) *Southern Nigeria*

The Southern Provinces of the Protectorate of Nigeria represent in the main the protectorate over the Niger coast, known from 1890 as the Oil Rivers Protectorate, from 1893 to 1899 as the Niger Coast Protectorate, and from that time to 1914 as the Protectorate of Southern Nigeria. It came into being as a result of the necessity of maintaining control over the British merchants trading to the Oil Rivers and of preserving that region for their trade against German competition. A legal basis for its organization was supplied by treaties which Mr. Hewett, who acted in a quasi-consular capacity for some years in that region, concluded in 1884 with native chiefs. The necessity for action became apparent with the German occupation

¹ Cd. 7278.

of Cameroon in 1884; and correspondence between the British and German Governments in April-June, 1885, fixed the boundaries between the two spheres of interest at the Rio del Rey river.¹ On June 5, 1885, a protectorate was publicly notified over the coast between the boundary of the Lagos Protectorate on the west and the Rio del Rey on the east, and over the interior from the confluence of the Benue and the Niger to the mouth of the latter river, and on both banks of the Benue up to Ibi. The protectorate thus achieved was consolidated by Sir H. H. Johnston in 1888; and British control became increasingly effective after the overthrow of the kingdom of Benin in 1897. The re-organization of the British control over the Niger, which resulted from the surrender in 1899 of the governmental powers of the Niger Company, was followed in 1900 by the extension of the territory of Southern Nigeria, as the territory was henceforth styled; in 1906, as already stated, the Colony and Protectorate of Lagos were merged with Southern Nigeria into the Colony and Protectorate of Southern Nigeria; and in 1914 the territory became the Colony of Nigeria and the Southern Provinces of the Protectorate of Nigeria.

(4) *Northern Nigeria*

The British control of Northern Nigeria is due to the activity of Sir G. Taubman Goldie, who so early as 1877 saw the necessity of organizing British trade so as effectively to secure the trade of the Niger basin. The United Africa Company was formed in 1879 and expanded in 1882 into the National African Company by his efforts; and at the Berlin Conference of 1885 it was possible to claim that the British flag was alone represented in the Niger trade, and thus to secure

¹ In 1913 the boundary was shifted westward to the Akwayafe (see below, p. 78)

implicit recognition by the Conference, which decided in favour of the freedom of navigation of the Congo and the Niger, and of the predominant position of the British on the lower as of the French on the upper Niger. On July 10, 1886, accordingly, the company received a charter giving them, under the style of the Royal Niger Company, wide powers of government; and a formal announcement was made on October 18, 1887, extending the British protectorate to all territories in the basin of the Niger and its affluents under the government of the company. Difficulties with Germany were removed by the definition of the frontier of Cameroom up to Yola by a treaty of 1886; in 1890 the French consented to accept as the boundary of their sphere of influence a line from Say on the Niger to Barwa (Barruwa) on Lake Chad, the line to be drawn so as to leave the dominions of Sokoto within the company's sphere; and in 1893 the German boundary was completed by an agreement for its prolongation to Lake Chad. //

The efforts of the Fula' Empire of Sokoto to overthrow the company were thwarted by the conquest of Ilorin and Nupe in 1897. Difficulties still remained with France, which, after the conquest of Dahomey in 1893, had aimed at securing a position on the middle Niger and at obtaining possession of Borgu; but, after a period of friction, the treaty of June 14, 1898, solved the question by drawing the boundary line in such a manner as to preserve for the British the full control of the lower Niger basin. The French were given two areas for trading purposes on the Niger within the British sphere; and it was agreed that, for a period of thirty years, equal treatment should be accorded to British and French subjects in all matters of river navigation, of commerce and of tariff and fiscal treatment; and of taxes of all kinds.

(5) *Protectorates of Northern and Southern Nigeria*

The conclusion of this treaty rendered it inevitable that the Niger Company should surrender its governmental powers, seeing that the responsibilities which were thus assumed by the British Government were inconsistent with the monopoly of trade which the Company had secured through the powers given by its charter. Arrangements were accordingly made by the Government; the charter was cancelled in 1899; and on January 1, 1900, the territories in the Niger basin and on the coast were reorganized as two Protectorates—Northern and Southern Nigeria—a considerable portion of the territory under the Niger Company being now assigned to Southern Nigeria.

This reorganization was followed by action to make British control effective. The Emirs of Bida and Kontagora were overthrown in 1901; in the following year, as a result of a raid by the French into Bornu in pursuit of Fad el-Allah, a son of their old enemy Rabeh, steps were taken to consolidate British authority there and in Bauchi; while arrangements were made with France for a delimitation of a frontier which would obviate the recurrence of such incidents. The decision involved the necessity of establishing control over the Sultanate of Sokoto; and, as the Sultan declined to accept British protection, a short campaign in 1903 reduced Sokoto, Kano, and Katsina. A somewhat serious rising, due to religious fanaticism, took place in 1906, but was effectively repressed; and, since that date, the only expeditions which have been requisite in Nigeria have been evoked by disturbances among the barbarous pagan tribes both of the north and of the south. Upon the outbreak of war in 1914 the Mohammedan Emirates remained free from disturbances, though the removal of many of the troops

coincided with a famine ; and trouble arose only among the pagan tribes of the north and in the southern provinces, where there was 'much unrest due to reports that the British were leaving the country, or to rumours spread by German emissaries that we had met with reverses in Europe and in the Cameroons'.¹

(6) *Frontier Treaties*

As experience had shown that the existing frontier in the neighbourhood of Lake Chad was inconvenient to France, it was modified by the treaty of 1904 in favour of that Power ; and the whole of the boundary of the French and British spheres east of the Niger was determined by a treaty of May 29, 1906, and a protocol of February 19, 1910, approved in 1911.² By a treaty of March 11, 1913,³ the exact course of the boundary between Nigeria and Cameroon from Yola to the sea was finally laid down ; and at the same time important concessions were made to Germany regarding the navigation of the Cross River, within Southern Nigeria, which was to be conceded to German vessels on the same terms as to British vessels. It was also provided that goods to be imported into Cameroon by that route should not be subject to prohibitions of import imposed by the Nigerian Government on goods intended for import into Nigeria, if these prohibitions rested on peculiarities of British trade ; and the same rule was made applicable to exports, while all transit trade was to be free of import, export, and transit duties. German Government goods were to be passed without question.

¹ Cd. 8172-4, p. 43.

² Cd. 6013.

³ Cd. 7056.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

IN the northern provinces the bulk of the population is Mohammedan, while at least three-quarters of the people of the southern provinces are pagans. In Lagos itself the census of 1911 showed the presence of some 21,000 Christians and 36,000 Mohammedans; and the missionaries of both faiths are zealous in their efforts at conversion. The chief Christian missions are Church of England, Wesleyan, and Roman Catholic, the first-named predominating.

(2) POLITICAL

In the administration of the Colony and the Protectorate alike, the Governor is assisted by an Executive Council of eleven *ex officio* members; but for the Protectorate he is the sole legislative authority, while for the Colony he acts with a Legislative Council of six *ex officio* members and other nominated officials and non-officials, who are chosen so as to represent the various interests, European and native, of the Colony. The administration is carried on, under the Governor, by two Lieutenant-Governors in the northern provinces and the southern provinces respectively, and by an Administrator in the Colony; but for many administrative purposes the Colony is ranked with the southern provinces. As the revenue, largely raised from customs, is in great measure collected in the

Colony, the Governor is charged with the duty of apportioning the sums received to the needs of the Colony and the Protectorate respectively, the control over those for the Colony then resting with the Governor in Legislative Council.

With a view to supplying in some measure the lack of a legislature for the whole area, an Order in Council dated November 22, 1913, provides for the creation of a Nigeria Council, with purely advisory functions, which must meet at least once a year. This body consists of the members of the Executive Council, certain other officials, and twelve unofficial members, one representing the Lagos Chamber of Commerce, one the Chamber of Mines, four Europeans representing shipping, banking, mining, and commercial interests, and six native members representing the coast and interior. The appointments are all made by nomination by the Governor, save those of the representatives of the Chambers of Commerce and Mines, which are made by these bodies from their own members. Any question may be introduced for discussion, if proposed and seconded ; but the Governor must be informed of any matter which is to be brought up ten days before the meeting at which it is to be proposed ; and he is empowered to forbid discussion, if it would in his opinion tend to encourage class or race prejudice or otherwise to be detrimental to the well-being of Nigeria. No resolution passed is to have legislative or administrative authority, nor is the Governor to give effect to any such resolution, unless he sees fit and is authorized to do so.

Native Administration.—The large area and population of the country render native administration of the highest importance ; and an elaborate scheme has been devised which is based on the conditions prevailing in the Mohammedan Emirates in Northern

Nigeria. The administration there has been restored and reformed. Funds are provided by a general tax raised in diverse ways in different parts of the country, but intended to represent a property and income tax, one-half of the proceeds being allocated to the central government and one-half to the native government. All the members of the native government are paid fixed salaries, or at least assured reasonable emoluments, and on the other hand are precluded from extortion. The courts have been reorganized; and the executive government and the judicial work alike are carried out by the natives under supervision which secures effective working without relieving the native officials of responsibility. Similar institutions have been created, so far as practicable, among the pagan tribes; and the extension of the system to the southern provinces is in course of development. In the former Lagos Protectorate native governments are assisted in carrying out the function of governing; but since 1914 the former independence of Abeokuta has had to be curtailed, as the native government failed to avoid internal disorder.

Local Administration.—The division of the territory into the groups of northern provinces, twelve in number, and southern provinces, nine in number, and the placing of each of these groups under a Lieutenant-Governor, are the necessary result of the great differences between the systems of government which existed in Northern Nigeria and Southern Nigeria before the amalgamation in 1914. The land was held on different systems of tenure; the position of the Crown towards it differed greatly; there were varying systems of native administration and of taxation, while the judicial system was differently organized. The aim of the administration¹

¹ See Cd. 8172-4, pp. 37-9.

is gradually to unify the legislation in force in the Protectorate and to evolve a uniform policy, subject, however, to the necessity of variations to meet differences of race, religion, civilization, and environment.

Shortly after the amalgamation of the two Protectorates, the military department together with the customs, railway, judiciary, treasury, audit and survey departments were placed directly under the Governor, aided by a central secretariat. In the case of certain other departments, medical and sanitary, public works, post office, legal, and forests, while the departments themselves are duplicated, their work is controlled and co-ordinated by a common head who advises the Governor. The remaining departments, political, agricultural, education, land, mines, police and prisons, are completely decentralized, and placed under the direct control of the Lieutenant-Governor in each group of provinces. The effect of these arrangements was to render it possible to abolish the system hitherto established in Southern Nigeria under which there were three provincial administrations, under Commissioners whose powers in regard to native affairs were but little controlled from head-quarters, while even in other spheres, although there were nominally centralized departments, the provincial administrations were largely autonomous. In place of the provincial administrations there are substituted nine new provinces under Commissioners with important authority in native affairs, but with limited authority in reference to the other departments of government. In this way the system of government in the southern provinces is in some degree assimilated to that in the northern.

Judicial System.—Steps were also taken in 1914 to reform the judicial system of the southern provinces by assimilating it to that adopted in the northern.

One Supreme Court for the whole territory replaced the Supreme Courts of the former Protectorates; and the system of Provincial Courts was extended to the southern provinces. These courts have the same jurisdiction as the Supreme Court; but no sentence of death, deportation, fine over £50, imprisonment exceeding six months, or flogging over twelve lashes, can be carried out unless confirmed by the Governor or his delegate (the Lieutenant-Governor or the Chief Justice). The exclusion of legal practitioners from these courts has simplified their proceedings, while their institution has relieved the Supreme Court of needless work. The Supreme Court, however, still retains concurrent jurisdiction with the Provincial Courts over all non-natives in Nigeria; and its jurisdiction is exclusive in the Colony proper and in certain other centres, where there is an educated native or non-native population. At the same time the Native Courts of the southern provinces were assimilated to those of the northern by a change in their constitution, which substituted purely native bodies for the old courts, formerly presided over by the district officers and in practice often unduly subject to the influence of the Native Court clerk and the interpreter.

The amalgamation was accompanied by the abolition of the fiscal frontier between the administrations. Customs had for the most part been collected at the ports of Southern Nigeria, but a surtax on salt had been levied on the Northern Nigeria frontier. This surtax, together with a similar surtax on native-made salt entering over the northern land frontiers, was abolished; and it was decided to stop all collection of customs duties on the land frontiers, save at Yola, the point where the Benue enters from Cameroon, and Ilo, where the Niger crosses the Anglo-French frontier. This has resulted in great benefit to native

traders, while it has eliminated a constant source of bribery of native officials and obviated glaring inequalities of taxation, due to the absence of customs officials and the inability of district offices efficiently to carry out the collection of customs over many hundreds of miles of frontier in addition to their political duties.

In the important field of assimilation of law much work has already been carried out, including the valuable measure of the application to the southern provinces of the criminal code of the northern, a step essential to the smooth working of the Provincial Courts. Other measures include the revision of the legislation regarding education and the drawing up of a new code regulating governmental grants, and forestry legislation, designed to prevent the destruction of forests and to facilitate the creation of reserves.¹

(3) EDUCATIONAL

In the Colony and the southern provinces of the Protectorate the missions are active in educational work ; but the Government have schools of their own, and the Mohammedans also maintain schools in which instruction is given in Arabic and the Koran. The numbers of schools in 1915 were as follows : Government schools, 51 ; assisted, 82 ; unassisted, 587. The average total attendance is nearly 40,000 pupils.⁷ The schools include in their programme manual work, elementary agriculture, and training in the vernacular. Carpentry, printing, and tailoring are taught at the Hope Waddell Institute, Calabar ; carpentry at the C. M. S. Industrial Mission, Onitsha ; and there exist

¹ See Cd. 8434-33, p. 36.

schools for the training of teachers and for higher education, which had 391 pupils in 1915.

In the northern provinces the missions have 46 schools, which had 1,643 pupils in 1915 ; they receive no assistance from the Government. The Government had 12 schools with 781 pupils, and there were estimated to be 24,278 Moslem schools with 221,668 pupils. In the case of the pagan districts of the northern provinces it has been found difficult to effect much, owing to the reluctance of the parents to have their children instructed, the unwillingness of the children to be taught, the lack of trained native teachers, and the difficulty of the vernaculars, which hampers the effort to supply European teachers. There is an industrial school at Kano where instruction is given in carpentry, cabinet-making, embroidering, weaving, tailoring, tanning, leather work, smith's work, brick-making, and bricklaying. The total expenditure in 1915 for the whole of Nigeria was £46,303, being 1·7 per cent. of the realized revenue, as against £47,900 (1·5 per cent.) in 1914. The Government have also instituted, with satisfactory results, systematic training for apprentices for the service of the railways, the Public Works Department, the Marine, and the Printing Department.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

The importance of Nigeria, both political and commercial, is too obvious to need to be emphasized. It gives to Great Britain full control of the basin of the Lower Niger and of the Niger Delta, access to Lake Chad, and predominance among the Moham-medan states in this part of Central Africa. It is the one British possession on the western side of Africa which is carried into the far interior, and stretches out appreciably towards British East Africa and Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. It has abundance and variety both of coast and of inland products, and mineral as well as agricultural wealth, notably coal and tin.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

(a) *Roads*

THE Government has constructed a large number of broad main roads, many of which are suitable for general motor traffic in the dry season and for light motor vehicles even in the rains. Regular motor services, in connexion with the railway, run from Ibadan to Oyo (Awyaw, 33 miles) and from Oyo to Iseyin (27 miles); from Oshogbo south to Ilesha (20 miles) and north to Ogbomosho (37 miles); and from Bukuru to Ropp and Ex-land (27 miles). The outbreak of war in 1914 prevented the proposed extension of these services.

Besides the main roads, there are numerous narrow roads and bush tracks, on most of which bicycles and even motor bicycles can be used. Horses cannot live in certain districts, on account of the tsetse fly. Though the use of motor transport is increasing, portorage is still widely used. A carrier is paid from 6*d.* to 9*d.* a day, and his load should not exceed 60 lb. Fifteen miles per day is a high average of progress.

(b) *Rivers*

A remarkable feature of inland communications in Nigeria is the network of waterways lying immediately behind the coast for practically the whole width of the dependency. The centre of this system is the Niger, with the many branches into which it divides before

reaching the sea. Numerous creeks and channels link up these streams on the west with the Lagos and Lekki lagoons and with the Ogun, Oshun (Awshun), Benin, Escravos, and Forcados Rivers, and on the east with the Bonny and Cross Rivers. There is internal communication by water all the way from Lagos to Opobo, though many of the channels are suitable only for canoes and launches of light draught.

The Niger is usually approached from the sea by the *Forcados River*, which is connected with it at Sametri, 105 miles above the port of Forcados. The entrance to the river is obstructed by a bar, but there is a depth of 15 to 17 ft. over this at low water, and the channel is wide. Vessels drawing 17 ft. can go up to Burutu, 5 miles above Forcados. All the year round, stern-wheelers drawing 6 ft. of water can go right up to the Niger, and in August, September, and October, when the river is at its highest, small ocean-going steamers, with a draught of not more than 10 ft., can do the same. Except at one or two points where, at lowest water, vessels must wait for the tide, the navigation of the Forcados presents no difficulty and the channels are deep and well defined. The Forcados is also used as entrance to Sapele, on the Benin, and Warri, on the Escravos, since both those rivers have bad bars at their mouths.

Formerly the *Nun River* used to be the chief entrance to the Niger, and it still forms an imposing approach. The bar, however, is one of the worst on the coast, and 3 miles within the entrance navigation is impeded by flats which extend for 25 miles up-stream. Beyond these the river is shallow and full of sand-banks.

The *Niger* itself is navigable as far as the confluence of the Kaduna by flat-bottomed boats at any season, while between July and October steamers up to 10 ft. draught can ascend to Jebba (500 miles). Baro

(400 miles), the Niger terminus of the Baro-Kano railway, is thus accessible from August to mid-October to 'branch boats' (small steamers drawing 9 to 12 feet of water); from July to March inclusive, to stern-wheelers and other craft drawing 4 feet; and the whole year round, to canoes and flat-bottomed boats of 2 ft. draught. Between the Forcados River and Lokoja the bed of the Niger is of fine sand, and consequently the direction of the channels constantly changes, while the variation of water-level amounts to as much as 30 ft. in the course of the year. From 1910 to 1913 dredging was systematically carried on between Lokoja and Baro, in the hope of maintaining a navigable channel for large stern-wheelers throughout the dry season. This proved to be impossible, however, when the river was unusually low, and the experiment was discontinued.

Of the Niger tributaries, the *Benue* is the most valuable as a means of communication. During the three months in which it is at its highest level, vessels of 800 tons capacity can ascend as far as Yola, and by lightening cargo or using smaller craft navigation can be extended to the frontier and to Garua in the Cameroon territory. During the same period launches and steamers of light draught can ascend the *Gongola*, the *Katsena*, and other tributaries of the Benue for considerable distances. In the dry season the river can be used only by canoes or by specially constructed steel barges drawing only 12 in.

Another large river is the *Kaduna*, which joins the Niger 120 miles north-west of Lokoja. When in flood, this river is navigable as far as Wushishi, and even in the dry season barges and canoes can ascend to Barijuko, 21 miles lower. Traffic on the Kaduna, however, has lost importance since the opening of the railway between Baro and Zungeru, and the river is no longer used by Government vessels.

There are various smaller tributaries of the Niger which are navigable when in flood.

The only other river along the southern coast which need be mentioned here is the *Cross River*, the estuary of which receives the *Old Calabar River*. Calabar, on the latter, can be reached by large vessels, but the navigation is difficult, owing to reefs and sand-banks. Stern-wheelers of light draught can ascend the Cross River in the wet season for 240 miles, and in the dry season for 40 ; but on its upper reaches navigation is impossible during eight months of the year for vessels drawing more than 6 in.

The seasonal variations in all these rivers are remarkable, there being often as much as 35 ft. difference between highest and lowest levels. Generally speaking, the rivers are highest in September and lowest in May.

River Services.—Before the war regular mail and transport services were maintained on the rivers and creeks by the Marine Department, but several services have been suspended since the outbreak of war. In 1913 the Western Province (Lagos) had a weekly service from Lagos to Siluko and Sapele, calling at intermediate ports: in the Central Province (Niger) there was a service twice a week from Forcados to Burutu and Warri, and also services from Forcados to Koko and Sapele, and from Burutu to Lokoja; while in the Eastern Province (Calabar) there were weekly services between Calabar and Ikom on the Cross River and from Bonny to Degema and Akassa, and a service twice a week from Bonny to Opobo.

Lokoja is the head-quarters of the Niger transport. Baro, the terminus of the railway, is, during high water, a scene of great activity. The total amount of cargo (export and import) handled by the Marine Department at Baro during 1913 was 7,164 tons, and the total number of passengers to and from Baro

was 1,120. In 1913 the Niger Transport Service carried 13,209 passengers and 18,704 tons of cargo, as compared with 20,830 passengers and 18,399 tons of cargo in 1912, while the earnings showed a decrease of £10,555, due mainly to the low river and to railway competition. Niger services, including those on the Benue, showed at the end of 1913 a deficit of £8,364 on the year's working, after allowing £8,420 for depreciation charges.

A mail service was run from Lokoja to ports on the Benue as far as Yola. During low water steel poling canoes were used, where available, instead of the ordinary native canoes, to take up mails and passengers. The journey took at least five weeks.

In order to encourage trade the Government steamers carry cargo for various trading establishments on the rivers. The Niger Company owns a large fleet of vessels, used almost entirely for the transport of the company's produce. A few of the trading firms keep small vessels for plying on rivers and creeks not navigable by large craft. The *Compagnie des Chargeurs Réunis* maintains a rapid mail service through the creeks from Dahomey to Lagos. The Marine Department is charged with the task of keeping a clear passage, along these creeks, through the thick grass known as *sudd* and other obstructions.

By the Berlin Act of 1885 the navigation of the Niger and all its branches is free for the merchants of all nations equally.

By a Convention with France dated June 14, 1898, the French Republic is permitted to occupy for commercial purposes two *enclaves* on the Niger, one at Bajibo in Northern Nigeria, and the other at Forcados in Southern Nigeria. Leases for thirty years were granted, in accordance with this Convention, in May 1903.

(c) Railways

The Nigerian Railway was constructed, and is owned and worked, by the Government. It is divided into a Western Division and an Eastern Division (spoken of as the Eastern Railway).

The first section of the Western Division was constructed by the Government of the former Lagos Colony, and runs from Iddo near Lagos through the province of Yoruba to Oshogbo (187 miles). It was begun in 1896 and finished in 1908. The gauge is 3 ft. 6 in. The cost, including equipment, was about £7,000 a mile. In 1907 sanction was obtained from the Government for the construction of a line from Baro on the Niger through Minna and Zaria to Kano (356 miles). A continuation of the original line through Jebba and Zungeru to meet the Baro-Kano line was also sanctioned. Early in 1908 a 3½ per cent. loan of £3,000,000 was floated by the Crown Agents on behalf of the Government of Southern Nigeria. Of this amount £1,230,000 was advanced to the Government of Northern Nigeria for the construction of the Baro-Kano line, while the rest was used mainly for the extension of the Lagos line from Oshogbo. These additional lines, all of 3 ft. 6 in. gauge, were completed in 1911. The engineering difficulties were considerable. The Kaduna had to be bridged twice at Zungeru and once more between Minna and Zaria. In the latter case, the river was crossed by a great bridge of five spans. The Niger was crossed at Jebba, where the river divides into two channels with an island in the middle. The northern channel was bridged first, and for some years a steam ferry was in use over the southern channel, 1,286 ft. in width: the ferry, however, has been superseded by a bridge completed in 1916. In 1911 a branch, of 2 ft. 6 in. gauge, was begun

from Zaria to the Bauchi tin-fields. In 1914 it reached Bukuru (141 miles).

The Eastern Division (Eastern Railway) was begun in 1913. The line was intended to run northwards from Port Harcourt at the head of the Bonny estuary, cross the Benue between Loko and Ibi, and at Kaduna (450 miles) join the western line to Kano. However, on the outbreak of war it was decided to postpone work on the northern and central sections. The work on the section from Port Harcourt to the Udi coal-fields (151 miles) was pushed forward on account of the urgent need for coal, and the coal-fields were reached in May 1916.

Both the Eastern and the Western Divisions are single lines.

The total capital expenditure on the Western Railway up to the end of 1915 was £6,803,102. The following table shows the main features of working, for the Western Division only:

| | 1912. | 1913. | 1914. | 1915. |
|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Gross Receipts | £485,341 | £713,628 | £763,913 | £622,469 |
| Working Expenses | £342,925 | £385,130 | £448,979 | £436,198 |
| Percentage ratio of Working Expenses to Gross Receipts | 70·6 % | 53·97 % | 58·77 % | 70·08 % |
| Net Receipts | £142,416 | £328,498 | £314,934 | £186,271 |
| Profit on Capital invested | 2·53 % | 5·43 % | 4·73 % | 2·74 % |
| Miles open (mean mileage) | 823 | 924 | 950 | 970 |

The average monthly revenue in 1914 showed during the first seven months an increase of 20 per cent. on the average for 1913, but owing to war conditions this was converted into a decrease of $16\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for the last five months of the year. Immediately before the war, therefore, the financial position of the railway was very favourable. The cessation of trading by German and Austrian firms and the general disturbance of trade caused a severe set-back, and prospects of immediate recovery were destroyed by the shipping shortage. The proportion of working expenditure to

revenue shows a considerable increase, owing to the rise in the price of all materials and the fall in earnings. These conditions continued throughout 1915, but there is nothing to indicate any permanent damage to the prospects of the line. In 1916 the receipts showed a substantial increase on those of 1915, owing to the increased tonnage of shipping available.

On the Eastern Division public traffic up to the end of 1916 was very small, and the receipts for that year were only £28,375.

Railway construction has played a very important part in the development of trade in both Northern and Southern Nigeria during recent years. Before the lines existed transport was very difficult. Over large portions of the Northern Provinces animals could not be used on account of the tsetse fly, and it was necessary to employ porters, a slow and expensive means of transport. Moreover, carriers were becoming increasingly difficult to obtain.

The development of the cotton-growing and tin-mining industries was particularly hampered by the lack of economical transport. Zaria, the centre of the cotton-growing industry, is 600 miles from the coast and 300 miles from the nearest port on the Niger; the tin-mining area is 200 miles from the nearest port on the Benue, whence it is a journey of 450 miles by canoe and steamer to the coast, the transport costing about £29 10s. per ton. In the case of tin, there was the problem not only of the export of the ore, but also of the import of machinery, without which the mines could only be worked in a primitive and wasteful fashion.

There are considerable possibilities for further development of the railways, and many alternatives have been put forward, chiefly with a view to opening up the provinces of Sokoto on the one side and Bornu

on the other. One of the proposals is the extension of the Kano line along the 12th parallel of north latitude to Maidugari. Other suggestions have been made for a branch line from the Lagos railway to Ilesha and for the construction of local lines in Southern Nigeria. The only line, however, at present under construction is the Eastern Railway.

(d) Posts and Telegraphs

There were in 1916 about 100 post offices and agencies in Nigeria, and more than 3,000,000 letters, parcels, &c., were dealt with in that year. Northern Nigeria never belonged to the Postal Union and Southern Nigeria withdrew from it after the amalgamation.

Mail services are conducted by rail or river where practicable. In many instances, however, runners have to be employed. They are mounted on Bornu ponies where these are available. The runners are specially selected and work by contract; the faster they travel, the higher pay they draw.

The postal and telegraphic services were originally designed for administrative purposes. The revenue, naturally, is not yet sufficient to cover expenditure, owing to the large amount of work done free for the Administration, but during recent years the services performed for the general public have increased at a rate commensurate with the development of the economic resources of the country, and the annual deficit is being gradually reduced.

All the important stations in Nigeria are connected by telegraph, and there are over 10,000 miles of wire open for use.

Telephone systems are established at Lagos, Calabar, Warri, Forcados and Burutu, Opobo, and a few other stations.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) Ports

The ports of Nigeria are all situated on rivers at the mouths of which are shifting sand-bars. All, however, can be reached by large ocean steamers, although some of the bars cannot be crossed by deeply laden vessels.

The prevailing winds are from the south-west and west. Lasting gales do not occur, though tornadoes, which give ample notice of their approach and are of brief duration, occur between March and June and in October and November. Between December and February, when the *harmattan* wind prevails, dense mists are frequent on the coast. The general direction of the ocean current is eastward except during the *harmattan* season.

Lagos, the chief port of Nigeria, is situated on an island in the large lagoon formed by the Ogun and other small rivers of the former Lagos Colony. Owing to the dangerous bar it was until recently impossible for large steamers to enter the lagoon, and it was necessary for passengers and cargo to be transferred to smaller steamers in the open roads or at Forcados. Now, by the construction of a mole on either side of the entrance and by constant dredging of the channel, the depth of water has been considerably increased: it has not been less than 19 ft. since March 1916, and mail steamers can now enter the lagoon. It is hoped that when the works are completed vessels drawing as much as 24 ft. will be able to enter the harbour, which is being improved by dredging and by increasing the wharfage accommodation. The cost of these harbour works was estimated at £897,000 (provided by loan), and £558,989 had been spent up to the end of 1914.

The Customs wharf, 1,633 ft. in length, and a large number of public and private wharves are on Lagos island. Liners may lie off the island, where buoys are down for four vessels, 400 feet in length: they can also berth alongside the Customs wharf, in 20 ft. at low water. There are wharves 1,185 ft. in length on Iddo island, to the north of the harbour, where is the main terminus of the Western Division of the Nigerian Railway; and small steamers of not more than 14 ft. draught can lie alongside and discharge cargo into railway trucks. There are also railway wharves 345 ft. long on the mainland opposite Lagos at Apapa, which can be reached by vessels of medium draught; it is proposed to extend these and make Apapa the main terminus of the railway. The Government has a small dry dock at Lagos, and the Elder Dempster Line has a floating dock, 217 ft. in length and 75 ft. in width, with a lifting power of 2,700 tons. The Government is at present considering schemes for the development of Lagos harbour, especially at Apapa, as the existing accommodation is quite inadequate.

Farther east are the so-called Niger ports, Warri, Sapele, Forcados, Port Harcourt, and others, on the various outlets of the Niger, and on the Warri, Benin, Bonny, and other rivers.

Forcados, at the mouth of the Forcados River, is one of the best land-locked harbours on the west coast of Africa. The precise area cannot be stated, as there are many unexplored creeks; but about four square miles of water, with a minimum depth of 30 ft. at low spring tides, are available for anchorage. The channel across the bar is half a mile in width, and the rise of the tide on the bar is 5 ft. The water is calm enough to permit the trans-shipment of cargo in open harbour. Strong currents exist in the harbour, especially on the ebb

tide, but they are not serious enough to detract from the value of Forcados harbour as a first-class anchorage.

Vessels also enter at Forcados for *Burutu*, five miles up the river, where the Niger Company has a large depot and wharves.

The remaining Niger ports do not give good approach to the Niger, but are, where suitable, used as ports of call for the trade with the delta population.

Port Harcourt is a good harbour situated on the Bonny River. It was not discovered till 1913, but is growing rapidly in importance, as the terminus of the Eastern Division of the railway. It will probably take the place of Opobo as a port for the trade in palm produce.

The following are the maximum draughts for vessels using the Niger ports : at Bonny and Port Harcourt, 21 ft. ; at Forcados, 19 ft. ; at Degema, 18 ft. ; at Kokotown and Sapele, 16 ft. 6 in. ; at Burutu, 16 ft. ; at Akassa and Brass, 15 ft. ; at Opobo and Warri, 13 ft.

That portion of Nigeria lying to the east of the Niger delta is served by various ports, of which the chief is *Calabar*. This is one of the best harbours on the coast, situated on the estuary of the Cross River, with 21 ft. of water on the bar. There are good customs buildings and quays, alongside which steamers of average size can lie. There is, however, no communication with the Niger.

(b) Shipping Lines

Before the war six shipping lines called at Nigerian ports. These were the British and African Steam Navigation Company, the African Steamship Company, the Elder Dempster Line, the Woermann Linie, the

Hamburg-Amerika Linie, and the Hamburg-Bremer-Afrika Linie. The first three were all under the control of Elder, Dempster & Company, who had a fast weekly mail service to Forcados, calling at Lagos, the voyage taking sixteen days from Liverpool, and a weekly service to Calabar and ports east of Forcados. There was also a large Elder Dempster inter-colonial service between Lagos and Sekondi (Gold Coast), and another weekly service between Lagos and Porto Novo (Dahomey).

During the war, the African Steamship Company and the British and African Steam Navigation Company were the only lines running regularly between England and Nigeria. The service beyond Lagos was curtailed, but steamship communication was maintained with Forcados, Bonny, Port Harcourt, Opobo, and Calabar.

The following table shows the number and tonnage of vessels entered and cleared at Nigerian ports in the period 1913-16 :

| | <i>Entered.</i> | | | | <i>Total.</i> | |
|------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|---------------|-----------------|
| | <i>British.</i> | | <i>Foreign.</i> | | <i>No.</i> | <i>Tonnage.</i> |
| | <i>No.</i> | <i>Tonnage.</i> | <i>No.</i> | <i>Tonnage.</i> | | |
| 1913 | 310 | 530,876 | 253 | 351,010 | 563 | 881,886 |
| 1914 | 293 | 504,724 | 197 | 226,168 | 490 | 730,892 |
| 1915 | 266 | 530,882 | 70 | 30,889 | 336 | 561,771 |
| 1916 | 250 | 490,957 | 79 | 32,258 | 329 | 523,215 |

| | <i>Cleared.</i> | | | | <i>Total.</i> | |
|------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|---------------|-----------------|
| | <i>British.</i> | | <i>Foreign.</i> | | <i>No.</i> | <i>Tonnage.</i> |
| | <i>No.</i> | <i>Tonnage.</i> | <i>No.</i> | <i>Tonnage.</i> | | |
| 1913 | 300 | 510,911 | 251 | 342,239 | 551 | 853,150 |
| 1914 | 272 | 467,074 | 208 | 225,679 | 480 | 692,753 |
| 1915 | 272 | 537,148 | 69 | 30,444 | 341 | 567,592 |
| 1916 | 252 | 486,000 | 80 | 33,167 | 332 | 519,167 |

(c) Cable and Wireless Communication

The cables of the African Direct Telegraph Company connect Lagos on the one side with Kotonu (Dahomey), and with Accra (Gold Coast), Freetown

(Sierra Leone), Bathurst (Gambia), and England; and on the other with Bonny; while from Bonny a cable runs to the island of Principe and thence to South Africa.

There is a wireless station at Lagos with a normal range of 250 nautical miles. It was opened by the African Direct Telegraph Company at the end of 1913, and good signals were obtained from Accra on the Gold Coast, Monrovia in Liberia, and Duala in Cameroon.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

The people of Nigeria vary greatly in economic capacity. The negroes of the delta appear to be the least capable folk in the country: they do little more than provide themselves with the food necessary for existence, a task of no great difficulty in the district where they live. Farther inland, the inhabitants are more energetic. The Ibo are an intelligent and self-reliant agricultural people. The Yoruba grow cotton as well as food-stuffs, make good engineers, carpenters, and masons when trained, and engage in various handicrafts. The Bini have developed the arts of brass-working and ivory-carving. To the north of the Cross River the natives are said to be careful cultivators: so, too, are the Munshi, who, moreover, spend much time on handicrafts, manufacture stools and chairs, and show ingenuity in wood-carving.

The economic capacity of the negroid races is still greater. The Hausa are probably the most industrious people in the country. They grow a great variety of food-stuffs, and have cultivated cotton since early

times. As weavers, dyers, potters, and workers in leather and iron, they show considerable skill. For trade, also, they show great aptitude, and have developed commercial relations over a wide area. They have proved themselves able to take advantage of modern conditions, such as the import of European goods by way of the coast and the improved means of transport within the country itself. Among other negroid tribes the Nupe and the Kanuri may be mentioned. They are interested chiefly in agriculture, but the Nupe are also known for their work in metals.

The Fulani vary in economic capacity. Those who have settled in the towns and intermarried with the Hausa people have acquired some of the physical characteristics of the latter; but their interests lead them to administration, education, or religious teaching rather than to agriculture or trade. The nomadic Fulani, on the other hand, are pastoral and will probably remain so.

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

The chief vegetable products of commercial value are rubber, palm oil and palm kernels, cotton, ground-nuts, benniseed or sesame, kola-nuts, maize, gum, cocoa, and rama fibre.

Rubber is widely distributed in the Nigerian forests. Its chief sources are the tree *Funtumia elastica*, and the vines *Landolphia* and *Clitandra*. The latter are common in the rain forests in the southern parts of the Colony, while the tree is found more extensively in the drier monsoon forests farther north.

The rubber industry in Nigeria has undergone many vicissitudes. In 1894 the export of rubber

from the Lagos Colony was only 5,867 lb., valued at £324, but in the following year it increased to 5,069,576 lb., valued at £269,893. The maximum production was reached in 1896, with 6,484,365 lb., valued at £347,721. A rapid decline then set in, and the export fell to 596,332 lb. in 1900, and 131,311 lb. in 1903. There was a recovery later, however, and in 1906 the production of rubber in Lagos was 927,627 lb., valued at £91,260.

From Southern Nigeria the export was 874,298 lb. in 1898-9, and 2,251,315 lb. in 1900. In 1902 it had declined to 865,834 lb., but in 1905, the year before Lagos was included in the administration of Southern Nigeria, it reached the record amount of 2,842,831 lb., valued at £226,387. Since that date, the export figures have been as follows :

| <i>Year.</i> | <i>lb.</i> | | | |
|--------------|------------|---------------------------------|---|-----------|
| 1906 | 3,434,279 | | | |
| 1907 | 2,843,823 | | | |
| 1908 | 1,222,203 | (Northern Nigeria, 509,454 lb.) | | |
| 1909 | 1,388,009 | „ | „ | 449,345 „ |
| 1910 | 2,634,023 | „ | „ | 519,943 „ |
| 1911 | 2,164,285 | „ | „ | 752,569 „ |
| 1912 | 1,579,000 | „ | „ | 451,300 „ |
| 1913 | 1,144,016 | | | |
| 1914 | 374,080 | | | |
| 1915 | 555,520 | | | |
| 1916 | 891,520 | | | |

These totals include the exports from Northern Nigeria throughout, but it has not been possible in all cases to give the latter amounts separately.

Various causes were responsible for the fluctuations in the quantity exported. The rubber boom stimulated local competition, and resulted in a large output ; but careless methods of collecting and preparing the product led to depreciation in quality and value, and to a consequent fall in prices, which was accentuated by

the conditions prevailing in the world market. Output then in turn declined; and it is probable also that, owing to the wasteful native methods, large tracts were denuded of vines and trees.

There is still, however, a very large quantity of wild rubber in Nigeria. Until the world's demand can be supplied by plantation rubber, which may not be for many years to come, this rubber will command a market even in its badly-prepared condition. It might be desirable to develop the industry on the lines of the Congo or Brazilian rubber trade, and to clean and standardize the rubber on the coast. This method would involve considerable outlay and organization, but would ensure better returns.

For cultivated rubber there is a still more important future. The Government, realizing this, has started plantations of *Funtumia elastica*, and has encouraged the natives to set up large communal plantations of the same species near their villages. The Pará rubber tree (*Hevea brasiliensis*) has been introduced, and has done well in parts of the wet zone, and the Ceará rubber tree (*Manihot glaziovii*) has also given very promising results. Pará is the most valuable rubber of commerce, but the tree does not flourish in drier districts where the other two varieties can be grown.

Palm Oil and *Palm Kernels* at present constitute the chief wealth of Nigeria. The oil-palm is found in vast quantities in the rain forests of the south, and also, to a lesser extent, in the drier forests farther north. The Eastern Railway taps one of the richest palm districts. The supply may be regarded as practically inexhaustible; and the industry will grow in importance as improved methods of gathering and cracking the nuts are adopted. There is an increasing demand in Europe for the two oils, obtained from the pericarp and the kernel respectively and used in the manu-

facture of edible and other fats, while palm-oil cake, a by-product, has long found favour as a cattle food in Germany, and is being introduced into the United Kingdom.

In 1913 the value of palm kernels exported from West Africa was £5,000,000, or half of the total value of all exports. Four-fifths of these kernels came from British possessions, but three-quarters of them went for crushing to Germany, which at that date had a practical monopoly of the necessary machinery. Since the outbreak of war, mills for this purpose have been set up at Hull and Liverpool. Between 1900 and 1913, the export of palm oil from Nigeria rose in value from £681,296 to £1,854,384, while that of kernels increased from £833,630 to £3,109,818.

Cotton has long been grown in Nigeria, and land suitable for its cultivation extends from Lagos as far north as Kano and as far east as Ibi on the Benue. The natives thoroughly understand the growing of cotton, so that further agricultural development will be mainly in the direction of introducing new varieties. For centuries cotton cloth of good quality has been woven, especially in Northern Nigeria; and on the average 100,000 bales of cotton are yearly required for local needs.

In view of the growing demand for cotton materials, it is important that the cotton-producing area within the British Empire should be increased, and the British Cotton Growing Association, founded in 1902, has devoted much attention to West Africa. In Nigeria the Association has established ginneries at Ibadan, Lokoja, Ilorin, Baro, Ibi, Zaria, and elsewhere. It has not been thought advisable to set up plantations superintended by white overseers and worked by wage labour. Instead, the cotton is bought direct from the native cultivator, and all further cost of ginning,

freight, &c., is borne by the association. The Agricultural Department of the Government has been active in establishing experimental stations and arranging for the instruction of natives in correct methods of cultivation.

The efforts of the association, however, have not yet achieved marked success. The native cotton, though of a good type, gives a low ginning return, and the testing and introduction of better varieties is a slow process. Climatic conditions have not always been favourable, and the destructive *harmattan* wind introduces an element of uncertainty. The palm industry, and more recently the cultivation of cocoa, are serious rivals to the cotton-growing industry, especially in the south. The native has not always been willing to sell his cotton to the association, since he was offered better prices by the local manufacturers. The association, however, believes that the native is beginning to appreciate the value of its steady demand at a fixed price, especially as part of the local market is now being captured by the introduction of Manchester goods. Moreover, an improved variety of American cotton, for which the association is able to pay a higher price, has now been introduced over much of Northern Nigeria.

It seems clear that in future the Nigerian cotton industry will develop chiefly in the north, while the southern districts will be devoted mainly to cocoa, palms, and rubber. In all, it is estimated that about 25,000,000 acres will be available for cotton-growing. Allowing for a yield of about 100 lb. of lint to the acre, which is about half the American average, there should be a yearly crop of about 6,000,000 bales of 400 lb. each. As, however, the record crop of 1913 was only 16,000 bales, the output hitherto achieved is an infinitesimal fraction of the possible total.

Cotton-seed yields an oil which is an important ingredient in margarine; it also furnishes the basis of a valuable cattle-cake. The export from Nigeria has been small in the past, but is gradually increasing, and in 1913 reached a value of £14,431.

Ground-nuts are found both in the Northern and Southern Provinces, but are finer in the former. Near Kano the type is like that cultivated in Senegal, which is considered to be the best in the French colonies. The chief markets for ground-nuts used to be Hamburg and Marseilles, where there are crushing mills. The oil expressed is employed principally for admixture with, or as a substitute for, olive oil and in the manufacture of soap, while the residual cake forms a very valuable feeding stuff. The use of ground-nuts will probably increase largely in the future, but the financial success of the industry in Nigeria appears to depend on the establishment of remunerative prices for the residual cake, which before the war found its chief market in Germany.

It should be mentioned that the ground-nut plays a very important part in the rotation of crops in tropical countries. As a leguminous plant it has the power of fixing the nitrogen of the air and rendering it available in the soil as plant food.

The value of the export of ground-nuts rose from £10,377 in 1911 to £174,716 in 1913 (385,760 cwt.). This figure, however, represents a very small proportion of the output of the world, the chief exporting countries being India, with $5\frac{1}{2}$ million cwt. annually, and Senegal, with $3\frac{1}{2}$ million.

The *Shea-tree* is found chiefly in the Northern Provinces, but grows also in the Ibadan and Ilorin districts. As the railways are extended, the export of shea products should greatly increase. The value of the export rose from £40,496 in 1911 to £74,471 in

1913. In Europe the kernels as well as the extracted butter are employed, especially on the Continent, for the manufacture of vegetable butter and of candles; there is a growing demand and an inadequate supply. The value of the butter is stated to be about the same as that of 'soft' palm oil from Bonny and Calabar.

Benniseed or *Sesame* is another valuable product, from which oil and feeding cake of excellent quality can be obtained. The oil can be kept for a long time without becoming rancid, and is therefore greatly appreciated in Europe for making butter substitutes and for mixing with olive oil. The seed is always in demand, and its cultivation should receive special attention in the fertile and populated tracts of Northern Nigeria. The feeding cake has been tested in England with excellent results. The export of this commodity is not as yet of any importance, the value in 1912 being only £2,972.

Kola-nuts are obtained in considerable quantities from Lagos. The fresh nuts are valued by the natives for their sustaining qualities and as a sort of sweetmeat. In view of the large African demand, the Department of Agriculture has encouraged and increased their cultivation in the Niger and Bassa Provinces. The demand for the dried nuts in Europe is very small and not likely to increase.

Maize has been cultivated for export, especially by the Yoruba in the Western Province (Lagos). The amount exported has varied greatly. In 1908 the total was 15,528 tons, in 1911 only 866 tons, and in 1913 the amount rose again to 11,841 tons. Much of the maize exported arrived in Europe decayed and full of weevils, because of inadequate storage on shore and afloat. A remedy must be found for this if the export is to develop. In the north also maize is grown extensively,

but for local use only. Other food crops are described in the section on methods of cultivation (p. 51).

A certain amount of *Copal resin* is exported from the Southern Provinces under the name of *Ogea gum*. The export varies in accordance with the price. Gums are found also in considerable quantities in the Northern Provinces, chiefly in Bornu and Yola, some of the varieties being identical with the important commercial gums of the Sudan and Senegal. The Nigerian gum, however, at present fetches much lower prices than these, chiefly because it is not cleaned and sorted. The gum-producing areas are remote, the cost of transport consequently heavy, and the prices offered are not sufficient to induce the natives to take up the industry with any assiduity.

Cocoa.—Great efforts have been made to develop the cocoa industry in order to meet the sudden increase in the demand for West African cocoa, but many difficulties have been encountered. In the Western Province the methods of cultivation were in many cases unsuitable, and it may be doubted whether the climatic conditions in that part of the country are favourable. Prospects are better in the Eastern and Central Provinces (Niger and Calabar): the cocoa produced there and cured under the auspices of the Department of Agriculture has fetched good prices. The cultivation of cocoa is likely to be popular, as the demand is at present steady and the labour of production is not great.

The export has been growing of recent years. In 1895 Nigeria exported 157,586 lb.: ten years later, in 1905, the total was 1,051,987 lb. From 1913 to 1916 the figures were as follows:

| | | | | | lb. |
|------|---|---|---|---|------------|
| 1913 | . | . | . | . | 8,111,920 |
| 1914 | . | . | . | . | 11,062,989 |
| 1915 | . | . | . | . | 20,394,770 |
| 1916 | . | . | . | . | 20,167,840 |

In 1915 the production of cocoa in Nigeria represented something over 3 per cent. of the world's output.

Indigenous *Tobacco* is produced in Ibadan, and large quantities are sold there. It is unlikely that this tobacco will ever be suitable for export, for few varieties of it are adapted for the European market. Tobacco of the Virginian type was tried at Ilorin for the first time in 1915, and has given promising results, but further experiment is necessary to adapt the process of curing to the peculiarities of the climate.

A kind of *Fibre* called rama is widely grown in Northern Nigeria, to meet the demand for ropes among the cattle keepers of the northern districts and the canoe men of the Niger and Benue valleys. It has been valued at a slightly higher rate than common jute. An export trade in this commodity is gradually developing.

The *Domestic Animals* found in Nigeria include horses, cattle, sheep, goats, and fowls. Their distribution is affected to some extent by the tsetse fly, which during the rains abounds everywhere south of the eleventh parallel, but at other times is not common north of the Benue, except in certain limited districts. The cattle south of the eleventh parallel of north latitude are of a dwarf variety, immune from tsetse attacks. North of that limit, cattle are plentiful, and are owned by that section of the Fulani called the Cow Fulani. They keep their herds mainly for milk and butter, and it has been difficult to induce them to slaughter their cattle. Recently, however, ranching has been taken up by a British company, and beef from Northern Nigeria has been sold by the Cold Storage Company in Lagos. The Nigerian railways have arranged to handle the traffic and prospects are considered promising.

No woolly sheep are known in Nigeria. Two varieties of goat are common, a dwarf type in the south, and a larger sort, similar to the Syrian goat, in the north.

(b) *Methods of Cultivation*

Southern Provinces.—The Yoruba in the *Western Province (Lagos)* are industrious cultivators, and show considerably more ambition than other West African peoples. The country in which they live is particularly adapted to farming, and the climatic conditions are suitable for the cultivation of cotton and fibrous plants in addition to the various grain crops. Although farming is extensive, continuous cultivation is not found, and the use of manure is practically unknown. The natives usually farm a piece of land for a few years and then allow it to return to a wild state for a long period.

The principal crops of the *Western Province* are maize, cotton, cassava, yams, sweet-potatoes, ground-nuts, and to a small extent, Guinea corn, tobacco, sugar-cane, colocasia, peppers, okra, rice, egg-plant, and native beans. Fruits are not grown plentifully, and the trees are generally left without cultivation. The chief kinds are pine-apples, bananas, oranges, and guavas. On the coast, and for a considerable distance inland, coco-nut plantations are common.

The crops cultivated in the *Central Province (Niger)* are similar to those of the *Western*, but there are more yams and fewer ground-nuts. The people of the *Central Province* are generally less careful in their farming methods, and the Beni often plant their crops in only partially cleared land.

In the *Eastern Province (Calabar)* farming is generally of poor quality, until the region of heavy rainfall is passed. North of this, very large areas are extensively cultivated. The earth is thrown up in loose mounds, often 5 or 6 ft. in height, on which are planted yams,

maize, pepper, okra, Guinea corn, and pumpkins, the yams being carefully trained to climb along fibre strings towards central poles. The most important product of the Eastern Province is undoubtedly palm oil, but fairly large quantities of yams and maize are grown outside the forest zone and are transported to the coast ports, near which there is little cultivation.

Northern Provinces.—Tillage of the soil is here still done entirely by hand, and in those parts where the shallowest cultivation is practised manure is extensively used. The absence of ploughs is remarkable, since excellent cattle are numerous and might be used for ploughing. Among the crops grown are maize, cotton, ground-nuts, Guinea corn and other millets, sesame, artichokes, wheat, and rice. Agriculture shows the greatest development in the province of Kano, where the population is dense, especially near the town itself. In this district cultivation is continuous, the renovation of the soil being secured each year by manuring. The mode of cultivation is shallow, and in many places the crops subsist entirely on the manure applied.

The general appearance of Hausa cultivation is excellent. The fields for growing the ordinary food plants, with the exception of cassava, rice, and sugar-cane, are prepared in ridge formation, the height of the ridges averaging about 8 inches. These conditions are found only among the Hausa; the pagan Gwari and Bassa cultivate to a much greater depth and employ no manure.

The crops of the north may be divided roughly into rainfall, irrigated, and swamp varieties. The first include the most important food-stuffs, viz. Guinea corn and other millets, maize, ground-nuts, cassava, and sweet-potatoes. They are sown at the beginning of the wet season, and are greatly affected by the distribution of the rain, inadequate or irregular rains

frequently producing famine conditions. The irrigated crops are yams, colocasia, onions, tobacco, pepper, rama fibre, and wheat, the last being practically confined to the country north of the 11th parallel. Cassava and sugar-cane are also frequently grown under irrigation in the district to the south. The swamp crops are rice, colocasia, and sugar-cane.

There is no very extensive or important system of artificial irrigation. Rains and floods generally suffice for the irrigated crops. In the higher country of the Northern Provinces, however, artificial means are employed. Near rivers and wells the natives make use of the *shaduf* or dipping beam for lifting water, a device which was introduced by tribes migrating from the East.

(c) Forestry

The Nigerian forests may be roughly classified as follows :

(1) *Mangrove forests* in the salt marshes near the coast. Mangrove timber is hard and durable, and has been a good deal utilized for mining limbers, pit props, railway sleepers, &c.

(2) *Fresh-water swamp forests*, chiefly found in the districts near the coast. In these is found the red ironwood tree, which produces a good hard timber used by the Public Works Department.

(3) *Green tropical and rain forests*.—These produce most of the forest wealth of Nigeria. Mahogany of various kinds is found in them, as well as various trees of the walnut type and other hardwood trees, including camwood. The rich red wood of this last may come to be largely used for furniture. It is at present employed for dyeing purposes. Here also is found the so-called 'Iroko' tree, one of the best timber trees in West Africa, and much in demand for building and

furniture on the coast. These forests are also the home of the rubber vine and the oil-palm.

(4) *Monsoon forests*, the drier and more open forests towards the north. These contain types of mahogany, cedar, and ebony, the rubber tree (*Funtumia elastica*), and rubber vines.

(5) *Savanna forests*, farther north, which are still more open and less productive. They contain mahogany of various types, rosewood, and rubber vines. This type of forest is subject to periodical and destructive fires.

The forest wealth of Nigeria has been very little exploited. The only export of any importance is mahogany, the value of which amounted to £105,440 in 1913, but diminished considerably during the war. The export of ebony is now negligible, though large quantities are still available. The supply has, however, been largely exhausted in the drainage areas of the Old Calabar and Cross Rivers, from which the bulk of the South Nigerian ebony used to be obtained. It may be doubted whether, with the exception of mahogany and other high-priced woods, any Nigerian timber will repay the cost of export.

Wholesale destruction of forests in order to clear the ground for agriculture has been the constant practice of the natives. This has a serious effect on the water-supply, since forest or jungle growth which supervenes on land abandoned after a few years' cultivation is markedly drier and less rich in character than its predecessor. The Government has established a Forestry Department, under the chief Conservator of Forests, with a trained European staff and native rangers and forest guards. Large forest reserves have been created in the last few years and are managed in the interest of the native communities, who are given a share of all the profits taken. Licences are issued to

firms wishing to export timber, giving them the exclusive right to timber grown in a defined area of not more than 100 square miles. Certain trees have been declared protected, and may not be cut down without a permit and payment of fees and royalties, while in some cases a minimum girth is prescribed. It may be noted that the supply of large timber available at present within the zone which can be profitably exploited by unaided human labour is being rapidly exhausted, and in a few years the output will be considerably diminished unless mechanical appliances and other labour-saving devices are introduced. At present the exploitable zone is limited to a strip of 3 miles on either bank of a stream capable of floating timber, since it is not profitable to haul timber for a greater distance.

(d) *Land Tenure*

The natives have always been accustomed to regard the land possessed by the community to which they belong as vested in the office of the emir, clan chief, village elders, or head of the family, as the case might be. On the other hand, the right of the individual to occupy his hereditary holding as long as he conforms to the tribal laws and customs is a privilege which has always been tacitly admitted. These principles have been recognized by the British administration. Every native is secured in his occupancy of the land as long as he pays his contribution to the State in return for the protection to life and property which he enjoys. All the improvements he may make upon the land are his own inalienable property, for which he can obtain full compensation, and which he can bequeath or sell with his title. If, however, his land has risen in value owing to expenditure by the State—for example, through railway construction—he may be called on to pay increased taxes.

The only freehold properties in the strict sense of the term held by non-natives are to be found in Lagos. Certain freeholds were also vested in the Niger Company when its charter was revoked. The titles for the most part are Crown grants. Outside the old Colony of Lagos absolute ownership by non-natives has been recognized in a few cases; but the only title which the Government normally recognizes is leasehold. Titles to Crown lands are issued by the Government in the form of leases, the conditions of which are governed by the purpose for which the land is used. Leases of land to natives other than Nigerians are issued with the approval of the Governor, and on such conditions as the Governor may determine.

(3) FISHERIES

The rivers abound in fish, which are caught and eaten fresh or cured by the natives.

(4) MINERALS

Between 1903 and the outbreak of war annual surveys were made of the mineral resources of Nigeria. These were undertaken in close co-operation with the staff of the Imperial Institute. The territory, however, is so extensive that there may be much mineral wealth as yet unrevealed. Its chief mineral wealth, so far as known at present, consists in coal and tin.

Lignite or Brown Coal is fairly plentiful in the Southern Provinces, especially at Asaba and Moroko, about 9 miles from the Niger. It is of good quality, and has been found to be practically identical with the German and Austrian varieties which can be made up into briquettes.

Coal.—The importance of the lignite deposits, however, has been completely overshadowed by the discovery of coal at Udi, 150 miles by rail from Port

Harcourt. The coal-fields are being developed entirely by the Government, and all profits will be paid into the general revenue. This is the only certainly known coal-field on the west coast of Africa ; and, when it is remembered that even before the war Welsh coal could not be bought in Lagos for less than 38s. to 45s. a ton, its importance is readily appreciated. The calorific value of the coal has been found to be four-fifths of that of Welsh coal. The total area of the deposits is about 2,000 square miles, and the seams are in many places 5 ft. thick. There has been no difficulty about labour, for the local natives have taken kindly to the work.

Tin.—The Bauchi tin workings are at present one of the most important assets of the territory. There is evidence that the existence of tin on the Bauchi Plateau had long been known to the natives, who had smelted it on a small scale. Owing, however, to the unsettled state of the country, it was many years before European exploitation began. The first survey was made in 1904, and mining was started by the Niger Company in 1906. Though there was a good deal of initial speculation and failure, the industry may now be regarded as well established and capable, for a term of years, of a steadily increasing output. Tin exports rose, between 1913 and 1916, from 4,194 to 8,128 tons, an amount representing 9 per cent. of the tin production of the world. In 1915 there were 68 mining companies, working a total area of about 530,000 acres, with a nominal capital of £6,359,907 and a working capital of £2,594,658. In that year the tin obtained amounted to 6,910 tons and the value of the export was £773,700. The average cost of working was about £90 per ton, and the price on which royalty was paid varied between £149 and £171 per ton. It must be remembered that the value of the mines is greatly increased

at present by the enhanced price of tin, which in February 1918 stood at about £300 per ton. Prices are not likely to be maintained at this level for long, though they will probably not fall much below £180. The tin is of excellent quality, and especially suitable for mixing with Cornish tin.

All minerals in the territory are the property of the Government. Mining leases are issued to companies and individuals subject to certain conditions and payments.

The royalty payable to the Government on the tin exported varies from 2 per cent. of the value to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. in accordance with the price; $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is payable only when the price of tin is above £180 per ton. Half the royalties received by the Government are paid to the Niger Company, this arrangement having been made when the company's charter was revoked and the administration of Northern Nigeria taken over by the Government.

It must be remembered that the tin mines cannot be regarded as a permanent asset of Nigeria, for they are alluvial in character, and their 'life' will probably not be very long. Opinions vary considerably, but it may be estimated that the average life of the mines will be about twelve years from the present time. The period will, of course, vary greatly with different areas and with different mines.

Iron Ore of various kinds is widely distributed throughout Nigeria, and is in many cases smelted locally by the natives. Deposits are found near the junction of the Niger and Benue, and at other places in the Kabba Province not far from the Niger. There is also a large field near Oyo in the Lagos Province. It is, however, doubtful whether any of the Nigerian iron ore is worth exporting, on account of the cost entailed and the impurities which it generally contains.

Considerable attention has been paid to the examination of *Mineral Concentrates* obtained from riverbeds in many parts of the country. Tinstone, gold, and monazite have been proved to be present, but in no case has the amount been sufficient to justify working these beds on a large scale, though in some cases the separation of gold may be profitable to the natives. Though monazite in particular is widely distributed, the percentage hitherto discovered of monazite in the sand and of thorium in the monazite have been too low to repay working, but a more detailed investigation may give more promising results.

A certain amount of alluvial gold has been obtained, and a total of 2,422 oz. was exported in 1916. Mining for reef gold, which has been tried at Minna, appears to have given disappointing results.

There is a great deal of *Lime* in Nigeria, and it is proposed to work a deposit near the Niger, about 20 miles below Lokoja, and to burn this lime and use it for building, with locally-made bricks. It will then no longer be necessary to import any building materials except cement and manufactured iron, and a considerable saving will thus be effected.

Excellent *Granite* has been found and worked by the Public Works Department a short distance above Uwet on the Old Calabar River.

Deposits of *Brine* have been found at Awe, north of the middle Benue, and salt could be manufactured at a lower cost than that of imported salt.

Bitumen has been found in Lagos Province, but there have been difficulties in the way of extraction, and the deposit has hitherto not been considered likely to repay exploitation.

Lead Ore or *Galena* is not uncommon, and in some cases valuable silver lead ore has been won, which would be readily saleable in the United Kingdom.

Clay or *Kaolin* has been found in various parts of the Southern Provinces. It is of excellent quality for use in the manufacture of tiles and pottery, and might be made the basis of an important native industry.

Mica is also found.

(5) MANUFACTURES

An important and ancient native industry is the spinning and weaving of cotton. In many cases the stuffs produced are of excellent quality, although, from a European point of view, somewhat coarse. The heavily embroidered native garments are a feature of the industry. They are expensive but extremely durable, and will probably continue to find a local market in spite of the increasing importation of Manchester goods.

There is an old-established tanning and leather-working industry at Kano and Zaria. The so-called 'Niger morocco', made from the dyed skins of sheep and goats, is in great request for book-binding purposes. Until lately this leather was for the most part sent across the Sahara and sold in North Africa for the European markets. It is now to a large extent sent down the Niger and shipped by sea. The export of hides and skins rose from £37,809 in 1911 to £197,214 in 1913, and £505,785 in 1914. The value declined to £302,420 in 1915, and it is possible that the exceptional figure of 1914 was due to an epidemic among the cattle. The local embroidered leather-work, used on harness, bags, and other articles, reaches a high level of craftsmanship.

Among smaller industries may be mentioned metal-work, basket- and mat-making, dyeing, carpentering, and pottery-making. The native pottery shows a good deal of elaboration and some artistic merit.

(6) POWER

No study of the resources of the country in respect of water-power has as yet been made. A certain amount of power is doubtless available; but the great variations in the volume and velocity of the streams in the course of the year impair its value and render the question of its utilization very uncertain.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

(a) *Towns, Markets, &c.*

There has always been much commercial activity in Nigeria, especially in the north, where the Hausa have a natural gift for trading. In the old days the main trade routes ran north and south through *Kano* and *Ilorin*, and also east and west through the northern districts, where caravans from Tripoli on their way to Kano usually entered Hausaland *via* Lake Chad. Kano, an industrial centre in the midst of a fertile agricultural area, obtained European goods from the Mediterranean coast, and distributed these and local manufactures to the country districts, receiving raw materials in exchange. Ilorin distributed the goods of Kano through the coast region and in exchange supplied the caravans with European goods from the Lagos coast.

The construction of railways, the improvement of roads, and the increase of security have exercised an appreciable influence upon the direction of internal trade. Trade with Europe and the Mediterranean is now conducted almost entirely through the coast ports and along the railway, while the caravan route from the Mediterranean across the Sahara, being relatively costly and tedious, has largely fallen into disuse. → Caravans, however, are still organized every year by the Hausa to take goods from Kano and Bornu south

to Ilorin and Lokoja, and bring back in exchange kola-nuts, European cotton goods, and hardware. Kano, now on the railway, remains an important centre and is well known as a market in other parts of Africa. Ilorin is still a much frequented market, and *Lokoja* is a natural distributing centre for river-borne merchandise entering the Northern Provinces. *Baro* is notable as a Niger port and as the starting-point of the railway to the Bauchi tin-fields. *Bauchi* and *Zaria* are both active trading centres. *Yola* is the most important town in the eastern part of the Northern Provinces: it formerly carried on a great trade in slaves and ivory. *Jebba* is important owing to its position at the head of steam navigation on the Niger, at the point where the railway crosses the river.

The chief towns of the Southern Provinces are the river ports, which have already been mentioned.

(b) Organization to promote Trade and Commerce

The interests of the mining community are safeguarded by the Nigeria Chamber of Mines, with headquarters in London.

(c) British and Foreign Interests

Before the war, German capital played a considerable part in Nigeria, and German firms were established in all the principal trading centres. The Hamburg firm of G. L. Gaiser, for example, had 6 stations and 27 sub-stations in the Yoruba portion of the Southern Provinces, 2 stations in the delta portion of the same, and 4 stations and 10 sub-stations in the Northern Provinces. The offices of 17 German firms and 2 German shipping lines were closed down after the outbreak of war. There is no evidence, however, of any well-considered scheme for the economic pene-

tration of the country or the control of any industry by German capital.

By far the most striking part in the trade development of Nigeria has been played by a British enterprise, the Niger Company. This firm was originally registered as the National African Co., Ltd., and was formed in 1882, with a capital of £1,000,000, to take over the business of several houses operating in the delta. In 1886 the company received a charter to govern the territories in the basin of the Niger. On January 1, 1900 this charter was surrendered in exchange for a cash consideration and half the royalties which the Nigerian Government might receive in respect of any minerals exported from a defined area in Northern Nigeria, provided they went through a British port and custom-house. The nominal share capital is £3,000,000, divided into 2,000,000 ordinary shares and 1,000,000 preference shares of £1 each. Of the former, 475,000 have been taken up, and of the latter 500,000. The dividends paid between 1901 and 1916 were 20 per cent. in 1909, 1911, and 1912; 17 per cent. in 1910; and 10 per cent. in all other years except 1914, when no dividend was paid. The net trading profit in 1916 was £160,647, of which about one-third came from the tin mines. The company has its head-quarters at Burutu, with extensive wharves and warehouses, and also maintains trading stations and ports all over Nigeria.

(2) FOREIGN

(a) *Exports*

Quantities and Values.—The trade of Nigeria immediately before the war was in a flourishing condition, and in 1913 reached the unprecedented total of £15,152,000. To this sum commercial exports, exclusive of specie, contributed £7,097,646. The follow-

ing table¹ shows that for a number of years the export trade had been growing steadily :

| Year. | Commercial Exports. £ | Specie. £ | Total. £ |
|-------|--------------------------|--------------|-------------|
| 1906 | 2,950,392 | 201,026 | 3,151,418 |
| 1907 | 3,863,331 | 339,372 | 4,202,703 |
| 1908 | 3,335,911 | 73,377 | 3,409,288 |
| 1909 | 4,114,237 | 54,924 | 4,169,161 |
| 1910 | 5,258,452 | 45,734 | 5,304,186 |
| 1911 | 5,354,101 | 37,367 | 5,391,468 |
| 1912 | 5,773,488 | 316,218 | 6,089,706 |
| 1913 | 7,097,646 | 254,731 | 7,352,377 |
| 1914 | 6,420,461 | 189,585 | 6,610,046 |

The principal articles exported are cocoa, cotton lint, hides and skins, mahogany, palm kernels and palm oil, rubber, shea-nuts and shea butter, and tin. Of these the most valuable by far are the palm products, which are derived mainly from the Southern Provinces and in 1913 attained a value of £5,126,443. This sum was made up as follows :

| | £ |
|-------------------------|-----------|
| Palm kernels | 3,109,818 |
| Palm oil | 1,854,384 |
| Kernel oil | 129,443 |
| Kernel cake | 31,484 |
| Kernel shells | 1,314 |

Palm products therefore constituted more than 72 per cent. of the commercial exports. The item next in importance was tin, which amounted to £568,428. Next came cotton lint (£159,223), cocoa (£157,480), mahogany (£105,440), rubber (£89,995), and shea products (£74,470).

Countries of Destination.—Before the war the export trade of Nigeria was shared, almost exclusively, by Great Britain and Germany, the portion taken by other countries being so small as to be negligible. The value of exports to Great Britain and British possessions rose from £1,677,172 in 1906 to £3,693,941 in 1913, but German progress was almost as great, from £1,158,164 to £3,072,131. Of the exports from Lagos

¹ From the *Statistical Abstract*, 1914.

in 1914, in the period before war broke out, a single German firm exported 32 per cent. of the palm kernels, 45 per cent. of the palm oil, 21 per cent. of the cocoa, 12 per cent. of the shea-nuts, and 8 per cent. of the hides. In 1912 Germany's percentage of the exports was higher than that of Great Britain, 48 per cent. against 47 per cent. That was an exception, however, and in most years Great Britain maintained a slight lead. In 1913 Great Britain took 52 per cent. of the exports, and Germany 43. The following table shows the value of the exports to Great Britain and Germany, and their percentages to the total commercial exports, from 1906 to 1914 :

| Year. | Great Britain. | % | Germany. | % |
|-------|----------------|------|-----------|-------|
| | £ | | £ | |
| 1906 | 1,677,172 | 56.8 | 1,158,164 | 39.2 |
| 1907 | 2,036,619 | 52.6 | 1,619,967 | 41.9 |
| 1908 | 1,774,480 | 53.2 | 1,334,223 | 40 |
| 1909 | 1,997,415 | 48.5 | 1,860,300 | 45.2 |
| 1910 | 2,581,149 | 49 | 2,506,648 | 47.7 |
| 1911 | 2,576,610 | 47.8 | 2,612,751 | 48.1 |
| 1912 | 2,825,856 | 48.9 | 2,586,580 | 44.8 |
| 1913 | 3,693,941 | 52.2 | 3,072,131 | 43.06 |
| 1914 | 4,193,061 | 65.3 | 2,156,512 | 33.6 |

(b) Imports

Quantities and Values.—In 1913 the import trade of Nigeria reached the record value of £7,201,819, or, excluding specie and Government imports, £5,701,599. This was the climax of a steady ascent from 1906, as the following table¹ shows :

| Year. | Commercial Imports. | Government Imports. | Specie. | Total. |
|-------|---------------------|---------------------|---------|-----------|
| | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| 1906 | 2,537,750 | 309,566 | 300,951 | 3,148,267 |
| 1907 | 3,540,723 | 298,617 | 599,566 | 4,438,906 |
| 1908 | 3,262,309 | 784,263 | 238,258 | 4,284,830 |
| 1909 | 3,514,011 | 1,015,593 | 432,940 | 4,962,544 |
| 1910 | 4,578,989 | 543,381 | 734,965 | 5,857,335 |
| 1911 | 4,724,772 | 510,102 | 446,106 | 5,680,980 |
| 1912 | 5,470,049 | 481,434 | 478,718 | 6,430,201 |
| 1913 | 5,701,599 | 630,152 | 870,068 | 7,201,819 |
| 1914 | 5,054,333 | 1,222,623 | 624,115 | 6,901,071 |

¹ From the *Statistical Abstract*, 1914.

These totals are exclusive of overland imports from neighbouring colonies.

The articles most in request are cotton textiles, food, including fish, salt, biscuits, grain and flour, spirits, iron and steel, tobacco, coopers' stores, machinery, cutlery and hardware, and kola-nuts. Of these, cotton textiles are the largest item, and amounted in value in 1913 to £1,675,511, or over 27 per cent. The increase in the trade in Lancashire woven goods is a remarkable feature in the recent history of Nigeria. The average annual value of cotton goods imported from 1901 to 1903 was only £648,000. This trade increased more than 150 per cent. in the decade preceding the late war. The following table¹ shows the value of the principal articles imported in 1913:

| | £ |
|---|-----------|
| Bullion and specie | 870,068 |
| Coal | 99,948 |
| Coopers' stores | 173,256 |
| Cotton textiles | 1,675,511 |
| Cutlery, hardware, &c. | 154,857 |
| Food-stuffs | 375,396 |
| Iron, steel, and manufactures thereof | 357,864 |
| Kerosene | 93,262 |
| Kola-nuts | 117,324 |
| Machinery | 157,353 |
| Spirits | 456,400 |
| Tobacco, cigars, and cigarettes | 230,962 |

Countries of Origin.—The bulk of the import trade was in the hands of Great Britain, whose market in Nigeria rose in value from £1,843,369 in 1906 to £3,852,344 in 1913. During the same period imports from Germany rose from £304,897 to £808,357. The percentage of the total commercial imports supplied by Great Britain, however, was actually higher in 1906, when it was 69·1, than in 1913, when it was 67·5, while Germany's percentage had risen from 12·1 in 1906 to 14·1 in 1913.

¹ From the *Statistical Abstract*, 1914.

The only other countries which in 1913 had an appreciable share of the import trade were the Netherlands and the United States. The following table¹ shows the value of imports from Great Britain and Germany from 1906 to 1914 :

| Year. | From Great Britain. £ | % | From Germany. £ | % |
|-------|-----------------------------|-------|-----------------------|------|
| 1906 | 1,843,369 | 69.1 | 304,897 | 12.1 |
| 1907 | 2,593,522 | 69.9 | 477,066 | 13.5 |
| 1908 | 2,358,187 | 71.5 | 450,510 | 13.8 |
| 1909 | 2,510,646 | 70 | 508,154 | 14.5 |
| 1910 | 3,043,905 | 66.5 | 648,244 | 14.1 |
| 1911 | 3,172,289 | 67.1 | 714,761 | 15.1 |
| 1912 | 3,753,736 | 68.6 | 725,661 | 13.2 |
| 1913 | 3,852,344 | 67.5 | 808,357 | 14.1 |
| 1914 | 3,607,550 | 71.37 | 562,340 | 11.1 |

(c) Customs and Tariffs

There were no export duties in Nigeria previous to 1916, when cocoa, palm oil, and palm kernels were subjected to duties of £2 6s. 8d., £2, and £1 2s. 6d. per ton respectively.

The import duties in 1914, the year after the amalgamation of the Colony and Protectorate, included specific duties on over twenty articles, and an *ad valorem* duty of 10 per cent. on cotton goods. Unsweetened spirits of proof strength paid 6s. 3d.² on the imperial gallon, sweetened spirits 10s. on the same. Manufactured tobacco paid 1s. per pound, unmanufactured 8d., cigars 1s. per 50, cigarettes 9d. per 100. Firearms were charged 10s. each, gunpowder 9d. per pound, filled cartridges 2s. per 100. Kerosene and other lamp oils paid 2d. per imperial gallon. The items most productive of revenue were first spirits, second tobacco, and third cotton manufactures; the dues levied under these categories in 1914 amounting to the following sums :

¹ From the *Statistical Abstract*, 1914.

² Increased to 7s. 6d. in 1915.

| | £ |
|-------------------------------|---------|
| Spirits | 923,065 |
| Tobacco : | |
| Manufactured | £423 |
| Unmanufactured | £156,26 |
| Cigars | £1,023 |
| Cigarettes | £30,330 |
| Cotton manufactures | 142,565 |

(d) *Commercial Treaties*

The Berlin Act of February 26, 1885, which was signed by the chief European Powers and the United States, provided that the navigation of the Niger, including its tributaries and outlets, should remain entirely free for the merchant ships of all nations, for the transportation of goods and passengers. The navigation of the river was to be free from any restrictions and obligations based merely on the fact of navigation, and no transit dues or tolls were to be levied apart from payments for services rendered.

By a Convention made between Great Britain and France on June 14, 1898, the British Government undertook to lease to the French Government two pieces of ground within Nigeria, one to be on the right bank of the Niger between Leaba and the confluence of the Moussa (Mouchi) and the other on one of the outlets of the Niger. Effect was given to this in May 1903, when a piece of land at Bajibo in the Northern Provinces, where the Doko joins the Niger, and another piece of land at the mouth of the Forcados, were leased to the French Government at nominal yearly rents of one franc for each.

It was provided by another article of the same Convention that British and French subjects should enjoy equality of treatment in all matters of river navigation, commerce, and taxes, for thirty years from the date of the ratification of the Convention.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

Northern Nigeria, while a separate Protectorate, always required assistance from the Imperial Exchequer.

The revenue of the Protectorate for 1911-12, the last complete year in which the accounts were kept entirely separate from those of Southern Nigeria, was £545,291. In addition to this there was an Imperial grant-in-aid amounting to £347,000 and a contribution of £70,000 from Southern Nigeria. The expenditure for the same period was £827,939.

The finances of Southern Nigeria, on the other hand, were in a flourishing condition. The total revenue collected during 1912 was £2,235,412, and the expenditure was £2,110,498.

It was partly with a view to achieving an equilibrium of finances that the amalgamation of Northern and Southern Nigeria was effected, on January 1, 1914.

The following table shows the revenue of Northern and Southern Nigeria in 1913, and the revenue after amalgamation in 1914. The Customs, Marine, and Railway Departments were already combined in 1913, and are entered below under Southern Nigeria.

| <i>Heads of Revenue.</i> | 1913. | | 1914. | |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|------------------|------------------|
| | <i>Southern Nigeria.</i> | <i>Northern Nigeria.</i> | <i>Total.</i> | <i>Nigeria.</i> |
| | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| Licences and Internal Revenue | 18,012 | 29,281 | 47,293 | 78,483 |
| Fees of Court, &c. | 74,168 | 65,029 | 139,197 | 109,237 |
| Customs | 1,772,619 | — | 1,772,619 | 1,505,712 |
| Marine Department | 32,129 | — | 32,129 | 68,344 |
| Railway | 632,130 | — | 632,130 | 695,502 |
| Interest | 109,544 | — | 109,544 | 72,200 |
| General Tax | — | 545,902 | 545,902 | 299,002 |
| Posts and Telegraphs | 18,651 | 11,566 | 30,217 | 42,899 |
| Rent of Government Property | 3,265 | 3,832 | 7,097 | 6,477 |
| Miscellaneous | 7,519 | 2,700 | 10,219 | 20,815 |
| Non-recurrent | 160 | — | 160 | 49,710 |
| Imperial Grant-in-Aid | — | 136,000 | 136,000 | 100,000 |
| Total | £2,668,197 | 794,310 | 3,462,507 | 3,048,381 |

The general or tribute tax is the chief source of revenue in Northern Nigeria, where native administration has been maintained under European supervision ever since these territories were taken over from the Royal Niger Company in 1900. The tax is a direct tax collected annually, each individual being assessed according to his resources. Its incidence varies from 6*d.* to 10*s.* 6*d.* In certain Emirates the amount of land held by the individual is taken as the basis of taxation, and, as ordinary farm land is fairly uniform in value, this system does not conflict with the general principle of a *pro rata* property tax, so long as it is subject to modification in the case of land specially fertile, situated near a railway, or for any other cause unusually valuable. A proportion of the amount collected (50 per cent. in the Moslem Emirates and from 50 to 75 per cent. in the pagan districts) is paid into the Government Treasury, while the rest goes to meet the expenses of the Native Administrations. The whole sum used to be returned in the revenue estimates for Northern Nigeria, but since 1914 the portion left in native hands has been omitted from the return for Nigeria. This accounts for the large decrease of £246,900 which will be observed under the heading of general tax in the comparative table of revenue for 1913 and 1914.

The accompanying table (see next page) shows the chief heads of expenditure in 1913 and 1914.

The total public debt at the end of 1914 stood at £8,267,569. The money was borrowed in 1905, 1908, and 1911, and has been expended on the construction and equipment of the Western Railway, the moles and wharves in Lagos Harbour, and the Lagos water-supply. Provision is duly made each year according to law for the instalments due to the sinking fund, which on December 31, 1914, amounted to £191,042.

| | 1913. | | 1914. | |
|--|------------------------------|------------------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| | <i>Southern Nigeria.</i> | <i>Northern Nigeria.</i> | <i>Total.</i> | <i>Nigeria.</i> |
| | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| Public Debt | 354,037 | 13,300 | 367,337 | 343,633 |
| Railway | 499,259 | — | 499,259 | 709,936 |
| Eastern Railway | 44,801 | — | 44,801 | 628,925 |
| Public Works | 55,082 | 12,809 | 67,891 | 72,884 |
| „ „ (Recurrent) | 39,623 | 16,313 | 55,936 | 50,022 |
| „ „ (Extraordinary) | 85,502 | 63,484 | 148,986 | 147,515 |
| Public Works and Railway (Extraordinary) | — | — | — | 153,835 |
| Medical and Sanitary Services | 89,318 | 40,659 | 129,977 | 141,784 |
| Education | 33,280 | 6,118 | 39,398 | 47,900 |
| Forestry | 20,600 | 965 | 21,565 | 22,172 |
| Agriculture | 12,163 | 4,002 | 16,165 | 18,191 |
| Posts and Telegraphs | 54,798 | 25,266 | 80,064 | 87,377 |
| Salaries and Miscellaneous Departmental Expenses | 581,279 | 172,894 | 754,173 | 799,790 |
| Transport | — | 14,018 | 14,018 | — |
| Mines | — | 13,397 | 13,397 | 5,268 |
| Surveys | 28,360 | 6,310 | 34,670 | 46,867 |
| West African Frontier Force | 123,127 | 150,250 | 273,377 | 222,925 |
| Grants to Native Administrations | — | 270,924 | 270,924 | — |
| Miscellaneous | 75,082 | 9,781 | 84,863 | 97,740 |
| Total | £2,096,311 | 820,490 | 2,916,801 | 3,596,764 |

The Native Administrations in the Northern Provinces had to their credit at the end of 1914 surplus funds amounting to £72,224, of which £54,650 were invested in England.

Their total revenue and expenditure in recent years has been as follows :

| | <i>Revenue.</i> | <i>Expenditure.</i> |
|-----------------------------|-----------------|---------------------|
| | £ | £ |
| 1911 | 197,292 | 116,560 |
| 1912 ¹ | 146,101 | 132,761 |
| 1913 | 325,052 | 252,085 |
| 1914 | 326,508 | 319,940 |

The accounting for these large funds has been done more and more by the native officials themselves, and the results are increasingly satisfactory.

(2) Currency

The West African Currency Board was constituted in November 1912 to control the supply of currency

¹ April to December only.

to the British West African Colonies. Its headquarters are in London and the Treasurer of Nigeria is the local currency officer. Coin to the value of about £2,000,000 is in circulation in Nigeria. The coins current are United Kingdom gold, silver, and bronze coins, West African silver coins of the values of 2s., 1s., 6d., and 3d., and Nigerian nickel and bronze coins of the values of 1d., $\frac{1}{2}$ d., and $\frac{1}{10}$ d. The United Kingdom coins are being gradually superseded by the Nigerian and West African coinage, the former of which was introduced in 1907, 1908, and 1911, and the latter in 1913. All are legal tender, the sovereign being the standard. Ordinance No. 11 of 1916 authorized the issue of local currency notes, value £1, 10s., and 2s. They can be exchanged at their face value at the head office of the Bank of British West Africa in Lagos. The value of such notes in circulation in June 1917 was £49,500. United Kingdom currency notes are also legal tender, but there are very few of them in circulation.

Barter has not yet by any means disappeared, and cloth, salt, iron, and tin are used as currency among the pagans and in the more remote districts.

(3) *Banking*

The Bank of British West Africa and the Colonial Bank alone do business in Nigeria. The former has branches or agencies at Lagos, Calabar, Forcados, Warri, Onitsha, Port Harcourt, Abeokuta, Ibadan, Zaria, Kaduna, Jos, Kano, Lokoja, and elsewhere. The Colonial Bank was established in Nigeria so recently as 1917, and has branches at Lagos, Port Harcourt, Jos, and Kano.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

There is little to add to the details which have already been given of the various industries and resources of the country. Nigeria is one of the most promising of the undeveloped tropical dependencies of the British Empire. As has been seen, the development of a number of its natural products, e. g. cotton, rubber, cocoa, &c., will take many years to accomplish, but the production of vegetable oils and animal feeding stuffs, which are of the utmost importance, can be rapidly expanded and is limited only by the capacity of the available labour supply. In these products and in the tin mines lies the immediate wealth of the country.

APPENDIX

EXTRACTS FROM TREATIES

(a) *With France.*

✓ Article IV of the Anglo-French Arrangement of August 10, 1889,¹ provided as the boundary between Lagos and the French sphere the meridian

‘which intersects the territory of Porto Novo at the Ajara creek, leaving Pokrah or Pokea to the English Colony of Lagos. It shall follow the above-mentioned meridian as far as the ninth degree of north latitude, where it shall stop. To the south it shall terminate on the sea-shore after having passed through the territory of Appah, the capital of which shall continue to belong to England.’

The navigation of the Ajara and the River Addo were left free to inhabitants of either sphere, and freedom to trade in either sphere was accorded to English and French traders.

✓ Article II, of the Declaration of August 5, 1890,² runs as follows :

‘The Government of Her Britannic Majesty recognizes the sphere of influence of France to the south of her Mediterranean Possessions, up to a line from Saye on the Niger, to Barruwa on Lake Tchad, drawn in such manner as to comprise in the sphere of action of the Niger Company all that fairly belongs to the Kingdom of Sokoto’; the line to be determined by the Commissioners to be appointed.’

A Declaration of January 15, 1896,³ formally approved the appointment of commissioners to delimit the boundary west of the lower Niger, and a report was drawn up (October 12, 1896),⁴ delimiting the boundary between Lagos and Dahomey up to the intersection of the *thalweg* of the Okpara by 9° N. lat. This delimitation was accepted by Article II of the Convention of June 14, 1898,⁵ which prolonged the boundary to pass west of Tabira and Dekala to strike the Niger at a point on the right bank 10 miles up-stream from the centre of Gere, the port of Ilo. By Article III the line then ran up-stream to the median line of the Dallul Mauri, 17 miles above Gere, then (Article IV) up that line to meet the circumference of a circle drawn with a radius of 100 miles round Sokoto,

¹ Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, ii. 732.

² Ibid., ii. 765.

³ Ibid., ii. 780.

⁴ Ibid., ii. 739.

⁵ Ibid., ii. 785.

then along the arc to its second intersection by 14° N. lat., then 70 miles along the parallel, then due south to $13^{\circ} 20'$, then east along the parallel for 250 miles, then due north to 14° , then east along 14° to its intersection with the meridian of $35'$ east of the centre of the town of Kuka, and then the meridian south to its intersection with the southern shore of Lake Chad. The British Government agreed (Article VIII) to lease to the French Government two pieces of land, not under 10 or over 50 hectares in extent, one on the Niger between Leaba and its junction with the Mochi and one on a mouth of the Niger, to be held for 30 years, with a possible extension to 99, for the purpose of storing, landing, and trans-shipping goods, but subject to the laws of Nigeria. It was also agreed by Article IX¹ that

'British subjects and British protected persons and French citizens and French protected persons, as far as regards their persons and goods, and the merchandise the produce or the manufacture of Great Britain or France, their respective Colonies, possessions and Protectorates, shall enjoy for thirty years from the date of exchange of the ratifications of the Convention . . . the same treatment in all matters of river navigation, of commerce, and of tariff and fiscal treatment and taxes of all kinds.'

This Convention was ratified on June 13, 1899, and a boundary commission reported on the boundary between 9° N. lat. and the right bank of the Niger on December 22, 1900.²

An agreement on the whole boundary from the Gulf of Guinea to the Niger was finally arrived at on October 19, 1906.³ Commissioners delimited the portion to the Okpara River, and their results, expressed in a protocol of July 20, 1912, were accepted by an exchange of notes of February 18, 1914.⁴ East of the Niger the boundary laid down in Article II of the Convention of June 14, 1898, was modified in favour of France by Article VII of the Anglo-French Convention of April 8, 1904.⁵ The line was to be carried along the northern arc of the circle drawn round Sokoto to a point 5 kilometres south of the intersection of the arc by the road from Dosso to Matankari, then to a point 20 kilometres north of Konni, then to a point 15 kilometres south of Maradi, then to the intersection of $13^{\circ} 20'$ N. lat. with the meridian passing 70 miles east of the second intersection of 14° N. lat. and the northern arc of the circle. Then

¹ Hertslet, *Map of Africa by Treaty*, ii. 789; the second map facing p. 90 shows the area affected. A declaration of March 21, 1899 (*ibid.*, ii. 797), extended the rule to all territory between $14^{\circ} 20'$ N. lat. and 5° N. lat. and between $14^{\circ} 20'$ E. long. and the upper Nile.

² *Ibid.*, ii. 797.

³ *Ibid.*, ii. 849.

⁴ Cd. 7278.

⁵ Hertslet, *ibid.* 818.

it was to run east along $13^{\circ} 20'$ to the left bank of the Komadugu Waube (Yobe), then the *thalweg* to Lake Chad, then the parallel of the mouth of the river up to its intersection with the meridian $35'$ east of the centre of the town of Kuka, and then the meridian to Lake Chad as in the treaty of 1898. It was agreed that, if in delimitation it was found difficult to carry out the scheme, care should be taken to secure that the tribes of the territories of Tessaoua-Maradi and Zinder should be left to France.

The necessary details of the arrangement were carried out by a Convention of May 29, 1906.¹ The frontier was described in a protocol of February 19, 1910,² accepted by an exchange of notes of May 17–July 1, 1911. The leases stipulated for in the Convention of 1898 were granted on May 20, 1903,³ one at the junction of the Niger and Doko, and one at the Forcados river.

(b) *With Germany.*

By notes exchanged April 29/May 7, 1885,⁴ it was agreed to define the British and German spheres of influence in the Gulf of Guinea as follows :

'Great Britain engages not to make acquisitions of territory, accept Protectorates, or interfere with the extension of German influences in that part of the coast of the Gulf of Guinea, or in the interior districts to the east of the following line : that is, on the coast, the right river bank of the Rio del Rey entering the sea between $8^{\circ} 42'$ and $8^{\circ} 46'$ longitude east of Greenwich ; in the interior a line following the right river bank of the Rio del Rey from the said mouth to its source, thence striking direct to the left river bank of the Old Calabar or Cross River, and terminating after crossing that river at the point about $9^{\circ} 8'$ of longitude east of Greenwich, marked " Rapids " on the English Admiralty Chart. Germany engages not to make acquisitions, accept Protectorates, or interfere with the extension of British influence in the coast of the Gulf of Guinea lying between the right river bank of the mouth of the Rio del Rey as above described, and the British Colony of Lagos ; nor in the interior to the west of the line traced in the preceding paragraph.'

The territory of the settlement of Victoria, Amba Bay, which had been annexed to the British Crown in 1884, was, however, to remain British ; but the British Government were prepared to hand it over if Germany could arrange terms with the Baptist missionaries there.⁵ Further notes of May 16–June 16,

¹ Hertslet, ii. 843.

² Cd. 6013.

³ Hertslet, ii. 812. They run from June 5 and 28, 1900, respectively.

⁴ Hertslet, iii. 868.

⁵ The settlement was transferred to Germany on March 28, 1887 (ibid., iii. 871).

1885, stipulated that in the British and German Protectorates in the Gulf of Guinea customs duties should be restricted to the sums necessary for administrative expenditure, and that in matters affecting their persons and property there should be no differential treatment of German or British subjects. A supplementary arrangement of July 27–August 2, 1886,¹ provided for an extended line of demarcation,

‘which, starting from the point on the left river-bank of the Old Calabar or Cross River, where the original line terminated, shall be continued diagonally to such a point on the right bank of the River Benue to the east of, and close to, Yola, as may be found on examination to be practically suited for the demarcation of a boundary.’

The same reciprocal assurances as to equality of treatment were accorded in respect of the additional areas. By Article IV of the Anglo-German Agreement of July 1, 1890,² it was further agreed that, as it had been shown that there was no river but only a creek known as the Rio del Rey, the line of demarcation should provisionally run in a direct line from the head of the creek to the point about 9° 8' E. long., marked ‘Rapids’ on the Admiralty Chart. By Article V provision was made for the freedom from transit dues of goods in transit between the River Benue and Lake Chad. An agreement of April 14, 1893,³ defined the precise spot meant by the head of the Rio del Rey in the treaty of 1890, and provided that the right bank of the creek should form the boundary of the possessions of the two Powers from its head to the sea.

By Article I of an agreement of November 15, 1893,⁴ it was provided that from the spot on the right bank of the Old Calabar or Cross River about 9° 8', the boundary should run in a straight line to the point of intersection with a circle described round the centre of Yola with a radius measured by a straight line from the centre to the point on the left bank of the Benue, 5 kilometres below the mouth of the River Faro: it should then follow the circumference of the circle to the Benue, from which (Article II) it was to run direct to the intersection of 13° E. long and 10° N. lat. From this point another straight line was to run to the point of the intersection of the southern shore of Lake Chad with the meridian 35' E. of the centre of the town of Kuka.

On December 12, 1902,⁵ an agreement was arrived at as to the mode in which the settlement of the boundary from Yola to Lake Chad should be carried out, and it was expressly provided (Article XVIII) that the boundary commissioners might suggest a natural boundary in lieu of the purely artificial

¹ Hertslet, iii. 880.

² Ibid., iii. 903.

³ Ibid., iii. 910.

⁴ Ibid., iii. 913.

⁵ Ibid., iii. 930.

one provided for in the agreement of 1893. The commissioners, however, could not agree either as to the astronomical position of Yola or as to the termination of the line at Lake Chad, the German commissioner having instruction to choose the deep-water line and the British the high-water mark as indicating the shore. Their divergence of view was formally recorded in a protocol of February 24, 1904.¹ By an agreement of March 19, 1906,² however, the boundary was determined by a compromise which drew an artificial boundary round Dikoa so as to place it in the German sphere, and this agreement was accepted by an exchange of notes on July 16, 1906.³ The section between Yola and the sea was finally defined by an agreement of March 11, 1913,⁴ under which the boundary was shifted slightly westwards to the Akwayafe River; and at the same time German vessels were accorded the right of navigation on the Cross River subject to the same rules as British vessels, transit traffic was declared free of import, export, or transit dues, all German Government goods were to be allowed to pass without verification as transit goods, and as regards other goods, their importation into Cameroon *via* the Cross River was only liable to prohibition on the ground of general rules applicable to Southern Nigeria, issued 'for the general safety of the country, for the upholding of public morals, as a protection against infectious diseases, or for the combating of diseases in cattle or plants. On the other hand transit goods shall not be subjected to any prohibition of import or export which is solely based on some special peculiarities of British trade.'

(c) *The Act of Berlin.*

Chapter V⁵ of the Berlin Act of February 26, 1885, provides an Act of Navigation for the Niger: Article XXVI provides as follows:

'The Navigation of the Niger, without excepting any of its branches and outlets, is and shall remain entirely free for the merchant ships of all nations equally, whether with cargo or in ballast, for the transportation of goods and passengers. It shall be regulated by the provisions of this Act of Navigation, and by the rules to be made in pursuance of this Act. In the exercise of this navigation the subjects and flags of all nations shall be treated, in all circumstances, on a footing of perfect equality, not only for the direct navigation from the open sea to the inland ports of the Niger, and *vice versa*, but for the great and small coasting trade, and for boat trade on the course of the river. Consequently, on all the course and mouths of the Niger there will be no distinction made between the subjects of the Riverain states and those of non-Riverain states;

¹ Hertslet, iii. 933.

² *Ibid.*, iii. 937.

³ *Ibid.*, iii. 941.

⁴ *Cd.* 7056.

⁵ Hertslet, ii. 481.

and no exclusive privilege of navigation will be conceded to companies, corporations, or private persons. These provisions are recognized by the Signatory Powers as forming henceforth a part of international law.

Article XXVII forbids the imposition of any restriction or obligation in respect of navigation, the levying of dues for landing, breaking bulk, or entry, transit dues, or other tolls.

'There shall only be collected taxes or duties which shall be an equivalent for services rendered to navigation itself. The Tariff of these taxes or duties shall not warrant any differential treatment.'

Article XXVIII applies the same rules to affluents of the Niger, and Article XXIX enacts a similar régime for railways, roads, or lateral canals constructed to make good imperfections of the river route on the Niger, its affluents, branches, and outlets. By Article XXX Great Britain undertakes to apply these principles to those portions of the Niger under British sovereignty or protection, and to protect foreign merchants and all the trading nationalities on the Niger like her own subjects. Similar undertakings are obligatory on France and on any other State with control on the Niger by Articles XXXI and XXXII, and Article XXXIII provides for the maintenance of freedom of navigation even in time of war :

'The arrangements of the present Act of Navigation will remain in force in time of war. Consequently, the navigation of all neutral or belligerent nations will be in all time free for the usages of commerce on the Niger, its branches, its affluents, its mouths, and outlets, as well as on the territorial waters opposite the mouths and outlets of that river. The traffic will remain equally free in spite of a state of war on the roads, railways, and canals mentioned in Article XXIX. There will be an exception to this principle only in that which relates to the transport of articles destined for a belligerent, and considered, in virtue of the law of nations, as articles contraband of war.'

By the Anglo-German treaty of November 15, 1893,¹ it was expressly provided that Great Britain accepted the obligation to recognize the duties imposed on her by the Berlin Act in respect of the waters of the Niger and its affluents under her control, while Germany similarly recognized the same obligations in respect of the waters under her control.

¹ Hertslet, iii. 915.

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE Nyasaland Protectorate consists of a strip of territory to the west and south of Lake Nyasa, about 520 miles in length and 50 to 100 miles in breadth. It has a total area of 39,573 square miles, and lies approximately between $9^{\circ} 22'$ and $17^{\circ} 8'$ south latitude and $32^{\circ} 30'$ and $35^{\circ} 55'$ east longitude. The territory is bounded on the north by Tanganyika (the former German East Africa), on the west by north-eastern Rhodesia, and on the east, south, and south-west by the province of Mozambique (Portuguese East Africa).

The northern frontier follows the River Songwe from its mouth as far as 33° east longitude; thence it turns south-west to the Rhodesian frontier. The western frontier then follows the watersheds between Lake Nyasa and the River Luangwa (Loangwa), between Lake Nyasa and the Zambezi, and between the Shire and the Zambezi.

The south-eastern frontier leaves Lake Nyasa at $13^{\circ} 30'$ south latitude and runs south-east to the north shore of Lake Chiuta; thence, crossing the lake, it runs along the eastern shores of Lakes Chiuta and Shirwa to the River Malosa, then follows the courses of the Malosa, the Ruo, and the Shire to a point below Chiwanga, and thence turns west to the Zambezi-Shire water-parting.

The southern point of the Nyasaland Protectorate is about 130 miles from the sea, the distance to Chinde by the Shire-Zambezi route being about 185

miles. This is the natural outlet of the territory, and has profoundly influenced its historical development.

(2) SURFACE, LAKES AND RIVERS

Surface

The greater part of the territory consists of the highland country which lies to the west of the great depression of Lake Nyasa. The Nyasa trough is continued to the south by the Lake Shirwa depression and the Shire valley. The Protectorate therefore falls naturally into two divisions, one lying west and the other south of Lake Nyasa, and each of these regions is again sharply divided between high-level and low-level areas.

The Western Region.—The western region consists of the Angoni plateau, which falls gradually south and west towards the Zambezi, ending towards the lake in an escarpment. Its greatest heights are Nganda Hill (8,597 ft.) in the north, and Mount Dedza (7,788 ft.) at the south-west of the lake. The interior plateau maintains a general level of over 4,000 ft. This region may be divided into three sections: (a) the coastal strip, (b) the mountain escarpment, and (c) the plateau.

(a) In the north, near the former German frontier, the coastal strip has a width of about ten miles; southwards it gradually diminishes, until at Florence Bay the mountains overhang the lake; but still farther south it again increases to an average width of twenty miles. It consists of rich alluvial soil, and is inhabited by a large native population, which cultivates rice and cassava. Much of the coast is swampy.

(b) Almost the whole of North Nyasa is occupied by mountains, the most important being the Nkonde Hills

in the extreme north-west, and the Nyika plateau hills (8,000 ft.). In West Nyasa district is a broad belt of mountainous country more than a hundred miles long, which is divided from the Mombera plateau by the Vipya Mountains (over 7,000 ft.), continued south-west to the frontier by the Chimoliro Hills.

South of the River Dwangwa the eastern scarp of the plateau again rises and at Dowa joins the Kirk Range, a mountainous plateau 25 miles broad (7,000 to 8,000 ft. high), which is continued along the British-Portuguese frontier. Apart from its bare granite peaks the mountain region is well wooded, especially in the extreme north, where good timber trees are found. The typical low open forest of Nyasaland, both on the mountains and the plateaux, is useless except for firewood.

(c) The plateau includes the whole of Mombera district and the greater part of Marimba and Central Angoniland. The South Rukuru river flows north through the whole of the Mombera district. The plateau consists partly of open plain, partly of more or less broken country, and much of its surface consists of rich alluvial soil, on which the natives cultivate maize, millet, beans, and sweet potatoes. Excellent feeding grounds for cattle exist along the courses of the principal rivers.

Mombera and Central Angoniland possess a fairly large population.

The Southern or Shire Region.—The depression which connects Lake Nyasa with the Zambezi valley is bounded on the west by the Kirk Range, and on the east as far as Lake Chiuta by the Mangoche Mountains. In the centre of this depression lies the extensive plateau of the Shire highlands, with the range of Mount Pirilongwe at its northern end.

The Lowlands.—The coastal strip to the south of the lake is fertile and thickly peopled; the plains, how-

ever, are as a rule badly watered, and support a small population. The country around Lake Shirwa and Lake Chiuta is absolutely flat, and is inundated for many miles in the wet season. The River Shire is bounded, except in the neighbourhood of the Murchison Cataracts, by alluvial plains, which vary from four to twenty miles in width. Much of the valley is covered with bush. Numerous large swamps exist on the lower waters of the rivers.

The Shire Highlands.—This is by far the most important district of the Protectorate. The highlands consist of an irregular chain of mountainous country running from north to south for about ninety miles, with a width of twenty to thirty miles. Their greatest height is Zomba Mountain in the north (6,647 ft.). Most of the district lies about 1,500 ft. above the surrounding plain. The soil is everywhere fertile, and consists in Zomba district of a heavy red earth formed from the weathering of granite. The highlands are watered by numerous perennial streams, which descend to the Shire, to the Tuchila, and to Lake Shirwa.

Mount Mlanje, which lies in the extreme south-east of the Protectorate between Lake Shirwa and the River Ruu, is a lofty tableland with an area of 200 square miles, rising from 6,000 ft. to 9,846 ft. in height. In form it is a rocky terrace broken by a succession of gorges, while its summit consists of undulating grassy downs divided into separate areas by the deep-cut valleys of the mountain streams. The most important of these is the Luchunya plateau (6,000 ft.).

The district is extremely well watered, and there is rich vegetation on the sides and round the base of the mountains. All the torrent valleys contain magnificent timber such as is not found elsewhere in the Protectorate, and the valuable conifer known as the Mlanje cedar is indigenous.

Lakes and Rivers

Lake Nyasa, the third largest lake in Africa, is 360 miles long and 15 to 50 miles wide, with an area of 10,200 square miles. It lies at an altitude of about 1,565 ft., and is surrounded on the east, west, and north by lofty mountains. The greatest known depth is 386 fathoms, near Ruarwe. Its principal affluents, which include none of first-rate importance, are the Songwe, the North and South Rukuru, the Dwangwa, the Bua, and the Lintipe, all on the western shore. Its only eastern affluent of any significance is the Rohuhu in the Tanganyika Territory. From its southern extremity issues the River Shire.

Navigation is everywhere practicable, but the lake possesses few good harbours, the best being Mtengula on the Portuguese shore. The different anchorages are much exposed to winds which sweep the lake north and south, and cause a heavy sea. The principal ports in British territory are Fort Johnston at the outlet of the lake, the head-quarters of the Marine Transport Department of the Protectorate; Kota Kota, the trade port for north-eastern Rhodesia; and Karonga, the terminus of the road from Lake Tanganyika. In the Tanganyika Territory the two principal ports are Alt-Langenburg and Wiedhafen, at the north-eastern end of the lake.

The most important islands are Likoma and Chisamulo, near Malo Point. Although close to the Portuguese shore, these islands are British territory.

The *River Shire*, which is the only important river of the Protectorate, has a total course of 275 miles, the last 50 of which are in Portuguese territory. Issuing, as already stated, from the south end of Lake Nyasa, it passes through the shallow lake of

Pamalombe ; but the Nyasa outlet is now frequently dry, and Lake Pamalombe has become no more than a reedy swamp. In the central part of its course the Shire skirts the Shire highlands in a series of rapids known as the Murchison Cataracts. At present the only navigable portion of the river is that between the Zambezi and Port Herald in the extreme south of the territory, and in some years the limit of navigation is even as far south as the Pinda Rapids near the Zambezi.

The Ruo, the principal tributary of the Shire, rises in Mount Mlanje, and is navigable by canoes for about 12 miles above its confluence with the main river at Chiromo.

Lake Shirwa or *Chilwa*, which lies south-south-east of Lake Nyasa, is a shallow brackish sheet of water of fluctuating area, with no outlet. In the rainy season it inundates for many miles the reedy and swampy plain which surrounds it. Navigation, even by native canoes, is rendered impossible by the great reed beds and the shallowness of the water.

Lake Chiuta is a small fresh-water lake, north of Lake Shirwa, which it resembles in general character. It is connected with Lake Amaramba in Portuguese territory, and is thus the ultimate source of the Lujenda.

(3) CLIMATE

There are two types of climate in the Protectorate, that of the Nyasa-Shire depression and that of the mountain and plateau country. On the lake shore the temperature varies from 80° to 98° F. (26.6°–36.6° C.) in the hot season (October to December), and in the cool season (May to August) from 65° to 80° F. (18.3° to 26.6° C.). In the Shire valley the temperature is considerably higher, and there is a maximum of about

105° F. (40.5°C.) in the hot weather. The climate of the highlands is fairly cool, and in exceptional cases the day temperature may fall as low as 40° F. (4.4° C.), with frost at night. At Zomba, which represents the climate of the Shire highlands, there is a maximum of about 93° F. (33.8° C.) in November, and a minimum of 42° to 47° F. (5.5° to 8.3° C.) in August.

The rainy season lasts from the end of November to the end of March. The rainfall is very heavy in the mountain country north-west of Lake Nyasa and on Mount Mlanje, where it averages from 79 to 87 in. (200 to 220 cm.) a year and upwards. At Zomba in the north of the Shire highlands the annual average is 56 in. (142 cm.), but on their southern edge the average is 65 to 70 in. (165 to 178 cm.). On the lake shore the rainfall is heaviest in the north-west (Karonga, 55 in., or 140 cm.), and decreases at the southern and south-western limits of the lake to between 35 and 28 in. (89 and 71 cm.). On the great plateau the annual average is between 30 and 35 in. (76 and 89 cm.), and water is very scarce in the dry season, above all in the central districts (Marimba). In the Shire valley the annual average varies from 25 to 35 in. (63 to 89 cm.).

The north-east monsoon sets in at the beginning of December, and for the next five months northerly and north-easterly winds, sometimes of considerable force, are prevalent, with occasional squalls from any direction, and numerous heavy thunderstorms. From May to mid-September the south-west monsoon blows, while between monsoons there is a period of variable winds—either violent east winds lasting through the morning, or southerly breezes.

During the period in which the territory has been known to Europeans, a gradual process of desiccation has undoubtedly been going on, as is shown by the

drying up of streams and marshes and the conversion of lakes into swamps.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

Owing to the prevalence of malarial fever throughout most of the territory Nyasaland cannot be said to be healthy for Europeans. In this respect the Shire valley and the lake shore are the worst districts.

The greatest mortality among Europeans is caused by blackwater fever, which is apparently confined to those who have already suffered from malaria. The climate of the highlands is suitable for Europeans, and some places, notably Mount Mlanje, form admirable sanatoria; but on the lake the humidity of the atmosphere renders the heat extremely trying.

The most prevalent diseases among the native population are bronchitis, malaria, dysentery, rheumatism, and venereal diseases, while severe epidemics of smallpox occasionally occur in spite of systematic vaccination. Sleeping-sickness has become endemic in the Dowa district of Central Angoniland, but the disease has shown no sign of becoming epidemic. The affected area of the Dowa district has been proclaimed by the Government, and measures have been taken to combat the disease by the destruction of game, the clearing of undergrowth, and the direct destruction of the fly itself.

Parasitic diseases are common among the natives, especially ankylostomiasis, which is especially prevalent among the natives at the north end of the lake. Jiggers and ticks are found universally in native settlements; myiasis, due to the burrowing larvae of a fly, which produce boil-like swellings, is also common, and sometimes affects Europeans.

Small Government hospitals for Europeans exist at Blantyre, Zomba, and Fort Johnston, and for

natives at Port Herald, Zomba (three), and Fort Johnston. In addition to the work of the Government, much medical work among both natives and Europeans is undertaken by the missionaries.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

The races of Nyasaland have become much mixed during the last century in consequence of slave-raids and tribal migrations. By far the most important indigenous stock is the Anyanja, also known elsewhere as Anyasa. This includes the Anyanjas proper, who inhabit the lake shores and the Shire valley and highlands, the Achewas and Achipetas of the Angoni highlands, the Ambos of the Kirk Mountains, and the Manganjas, Makangas, and Machinjirís, who have entered the southern part of the Protectorate from the adjoining Portuguese districts.

The Anyanjas are a fairly intelligent and industrious race, but their unwarlike and submissive character made them an easy prey in the past to the Angonis, the Arabs, and the Yaos.

In the north-west of the territory a number of other indigenous tribes exist, belonging to the following groups :

(a) The Awankonde stock, a pastoral people at the north end of the lake ; (b) the Batumbuka stock in Mombera district, to which probably belong also the Ahengas, the Anyikas, and the Aphokas ; (c) the Atongas, an important tribe on the west coast of the lake, who keep considerable quantities of cattle.

The Yaos (Wa Yao) are the most important non-indigenous people. In the second half of the nineteenth century they entered the territory from the country west of the Lujenda, and established themselves in large numbers in the Shire highlands and at the south end of the lake. Their chiefs opposed a strong resis-

tance to the Government for several years. Physically and mentally they are much superior to the other peoples of the territory, and their stubborn character makes them less easily managed by Europeans.

The Angonis are a people of Zulu stock, who entered the western part of the Protectorate eighty or ninety years ago. Their two principal settlements are in Mombera and the western part of Central Angoniland, and a few of greatly mixed type are found in the Shire highlands. Their native language has almost disappeared.

Considerable numbers of Angurus and Alolos have entered the Protectorate during recent years from Portuguese territory, but they are nomadic in their habits, and are of little value as labourers. There are a few Swahilis at Kota Kota and other points on Lake Nyasa, a remnant of the period of Arab trade. Several other tribes exist in the Protectorate in small numbers, such as the Sengas, the Bizas, and the Awembas.

The two most important native languages are Ki-Nyanja and Ki-Yao, the former of which is generally understood throughout the Protectorate. Swahili is also widely spoken as a *lingua franca*.

(6) POPULATION

Distribution

The population of Nyasaland and its distribution have undergone very great changes in recent times. During the second half of the nineteenth century especially, the country suffered severely from the effects of the slave-trade. The population was not only enormously reduced, but many fertile districts which had formerly supported a large population became entirely deserted. Wherever a strong power established itself, however, a centre of population grew up. With the advent of security under the British protectorate this process has been reversed, and the

population has been scattering in all directions in search of fertile land. This movement away from the villages has become so strongly marked that the Government has found it necessary to take measures against it, and under the District Administration Ordinance of 1912 scattered groups of huts are being concentrated into good-sized villages, in which sanitary and administrative control over the natives can be more easily carried out. At present the greatest density of population is found in the Shire highlands, the Shire valley below Chiromo, the eastern parts of Central Angoniland, and the southern parts of the lake shore. The hilly regions of West and North Nyasa districts and the greater part of Marimba are thinly peopled, as are also the middle Shire valley region (Ruo and West Shire districts) and the plains around Lake Shirwa.

The native population was estimated in 1915 to be 1,137,572, of whom 505,121 were males and 632,451 females. The rate of increase has been rapid during the period of British administration, although the infant death-rate is probably very high.

The number of European residents was 831 in 1914-15: 587 male and 244 female. In 1916 the total was 741. The bulk of the European population resides in the Shire highlands, especially at Blantyre and Zomba, and in their immediate neighbourhoods.

In 1914-15 the number of Asiatics amounted to 410, in 1916 to 391.

Towns and Villages

The chief settlement in the Protectorate is Blantyre, in the Shire highlands; others are Zomba, the seat of government, Chiromo, Port Herald, Port Anderson, Limbe, and Liwonde. On Lake Nyasa are Fort Johnston, Kota Kota, Bandawe, Chintechi, Nkata, Likoma, and Karonga.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1859 Lake Nyasa discovered by Livingstone.
- 1861 First attempt at British missionary enterprise in Nyasaland.
- 1875-6 Beginning of Scottish missions.
- 1878 African Lakes Corporation founded.
- 1887-90 Portuguese claims to Nyasaland challenged by Great Britain.
- 1889 Discovery of the Chinde mouth of the Zambezi.
- 1890 Anglo-German Treaty.
- 1891 British Protectorate proclaimed over the Nyasaland district.
- 1891 Anglo-Portuguese Treaty.
- 1893 African Lakes Corporation merged in British South Africa Company.
- 1902 British Central Africa Order in Council.
- 1907 Nyasaland Order in Council.

Early Explorations.—The origin of the Nyasaland Protectorate is to be found in David Livingstone's explorations in southern central Africa in 1853-73, Lake Nyasa having been first sighted by him in September 1859. In 1861 the Universities Mission of the Church of England began work in these regions, not far from Zomba in the east of the Shire Highlands; they did not, however, permanently establish themselves in Nyasaland till 1881, and in 1885 they fixed their headquarters on the island of Likoma in Lake Nyasa. In 1875 the Free Church of Scotland came in, and in 1878 chose Bandawe, half-way up the western side of Lake Nyasa, to be the centre of the Livingstonia Mission of the Free Church of Scotland. The Church of Scotland Mission dates from 1876; it made its centre at Blantyre

in the Shire highlands, which took its name from Livingstone's birthplace on the Clyde. Connected with Scottish missionary enterprise was the first British commercial company in Nyasaland, an association of Scottish merchants dating from 1878, and known as the African Lakes Corporation. James Stevenson, the chairman of the company, gave his name to the 'Stevenson Road', a track intended to be constructed for some 230 miles from the northern end of Lake Nyasa to the southern end of Lake Tanganyika, but actually carried at the present for no more than some sixty miles from Lake Nyasa. This company was in 1893 to a large extent merged in the British South Africa Company. Thus, British missionaries and traders were at work in what is now the Nyasaland Protectorate years before Great Britain had any political connexion with it.

Portuguese Claims.—The second chapter in the story of Nyasaland begins with the 'Scramble for Africa' in the eighties, which led to extensive claims on the part of Portugal. An Anglo-Portuguese Treaty (the Congo Treaty), which was signed on February 26, 1884, contained, in Article III, the following stipulations :

The High Contracting Powers recognise the entire freedom in respect to commerce and navigation of the rivers Congo and Zambesi and their affluents for the subjects and flags of all nations.

The claims of Portugal on the Shiré shall not extend beyond the confluence of the river Ruvo with that river.¹

This treaty, however, was never ratified.

The Berlin Conference of 1884–5, and the General Act of that Conference, directly affected Nyasaland

¹ Africa, No. 3 (1884), C. 3886, 1884. For the negotiations leading up to the treaty, see Africa, No. 2 (1884), C. 3885, 1884. See also Hertslet's *Map of Africa by Treaty* (1909 ed.), vol. iii, pp. 1004–5. All the treaties mentioned in this section are to be found in Hertslet. See also *The Partition of Africa*, No. 89 of this series.

only in so far as it was included within the 'free-trade zone conditionally established by that Act.

The Portuguese seem never to have had stations higher up the Zambezi than Zumbo at the confluence of the Loangwe ; and, when the British connexion with Nyasaland began, Tete, much lower down than Zumbo, was apparently the highest Portuguese post on the river. Livingstone found them ignorant of the course of the Shire, and there was no sure evidence that they knew of the existence of Lake Nyasa. However, in May and December 1886 the Portuguese Government made conventions with France and Germany respectively, securing recognition by both Powers of a Portuguese claim to the territories lying between Angola and Mozambique, 'reserving rights already acquired by other Powers';¹ and a map, which was laid before the Portuguese Cortes in connexion with these negotiations, coloured, as reserved to Portugal, 'the entire region lying between Angola and Mozambique, the whole basin of the Zambezi, Matabeleland, and the districts of Lake Nyasa up to the latitude of the Rovuma River'.²

On August 2, 1887, Lord Salisbury formally protested against this sweeping claim, as not founded upon occupation, which, he contended, was the principle admitted by all parties to the Berlin Conference, and as including 'countries in which there are British settlements, and others in which Great Britain takes an exceptional interest'.² A long controversy followed.

¹ These are the words of the French Treaty, Article 4 of which ran : 'The Government of the French Republic recognises the right of His Most Faithful Majesty to exercise his sovereign and civilising influence in the territories which separate the Portuguese possessions of Angola and Mozambique, reserving rights already acquired by other Powers, and binds itself on its side to abstain from all occupation there.' The words of the German Treaty were to the same effect. *Africa*, No. 2 (1890), C. 5904, February 1890.

² *Africa*, No. 2 (1890), C. 5904, *ut sup.*, pp. 7-8. For the Portuguese map, see Hertslet's *Map of Africa by Treaty*, vol. ii, p. 706.

In 1888 the Portuguese attempted to close the navigation of the Zambezi, and in that year and 1889 sent armed expeditions into Nyasaland, the second and stronger expedition being under the command of the famous African explorer, Serpa Pinto. So late as October 30, 1888, the British Government disavowed any desire or intention, 'unless forced to do so by circumstances, of creating a jurisdiction over any portion of the Nyasa district'.¹ Shortly afterwards, however, a much more positive attitude was adopted, due to the forward movement of the Portuguese, the grant of a charter to the British South Africa Company (October 1889), the discovery of the Chinde entrance to the Zambezi, and the energy of the British consular officers, notably Sir Harry (then Mr.) Johnston. A British consul for Nyasaland had been appointed in 1883; and, in view of Serpa Pinto's operations, the acting British consul, in August and September 1889, declared various Nyasaland districts to be under British protection.² The consul was now acting under Johnston's instructions. Johnston, who had been appointed British consul in Mozambique, had come out in July 1889, reached the Shire in August, and, after meeting Serpa Pinto on that river, had gone on to make treaties with the native chiefs as far as Lake Tanganyika. Eventually, on January 10, 1890,³ Lord Salisbury sent an ultimatum to Portugal, which had its effect. On August 20, 1890, an Anglo-Portuguese Convention was signed.

The Anglo-Portuguese Treaty of June 1891.—Owing to violent opposition in Portugal, it was not ratified; but a *modus vivendi*, pending a new treaty, was signed

¹ Africa, No. 2, *ut sup.*, p. 86.

² See Africa, No. 2, *ut sup.*, pp. 151, 174. See also the *Map of Africa by Treaty*, vol. i, pp. 286–91.

³ Africa, No. 2, *ut sup.*, p. 211.

on November 14, 1890;¹ and ultimately the Anglo-Portuguese Treaty, which finally settled the spheres of the two countries in these regions, was signed on June 11, 1891, and ratified on the following July 3.² Pending delimitation there was a prolonged *modus vivendi*, followed by articles of agreement by boundary commissioners and exchange of notes. An agreement as to the boundary on the Ruo and Shire rivers was signed in November 1911,³ and the boundary has now for the most part been delimited.

The Chinde Concession.—The value of the Chinde mouth of the Zambezi was made known by an Englishman, Mr. Rankin, in the spring of 1889. There is greater depth of water on the bar; and the entrance, together with the channel into the main river, is far easier and safer for navigation than is the case with any other mouth of the delta. Accordingly, an annexe⁴ to the treaty of 1891 provided for a British concession at Chinde, where goods might be landed and trans-shipped free of customs or other duties, and, *per contra*, for a Portuguese concession in the British sphere on the western side of Lake Nyasa. The lease of the Chinde concession was signed on May 7, 1892; it is a lease for 99 years from January 1, 1892, not to the British Government but to a nominee of the British Government, and an annual rent is fixed and paid. In 1898 the concession was slightly enlarged, to compensate for erosion by the river;⁵ and space adjoining the concession for residential purposes was leased for 99

¹ Africa, No. 2 (1890-1), C. 6212, December 1890.

² Africa, No. 5 (1891), C. 6370, June 1891; and Portugal, No. 1 (1891), C. 6375, July 1891. See also Hertslet, *op. cit.*, vol. iii, pp. 1016-26, and *The Partition of Africa, ut sup.*, Appendix IV, which omits the Chinde annexe.

³ Treaty Series, 1912, No. 10, Cd. 6147, May 1912.

⁴ See Hertslet, *op. cit.*, vol. iii, p. 1025.

⁵ See Hertslet, *op. cit.*, vol. iii, p. 1026.

years from January 1, 1896, but without exemption from duties. The corresponding concession to Portugal on Lake Nyasa, owing to a change of locality, was not finally settled until January 12, 1901.¹

The Anglo-German Treaty of July 1, 1890.—The Anglo-German spheres in the Nyasa region were settled a year before the Anglo-Portuguese settlement by the agreement of July 1, 1890 (Articles 1 (par. 2), 6, 7, 8, 9, 10).² The Anglo-German boundary between Lakes Nyasa and Tanganyika was delimited in 1898, and the delimitation confirmed by agreement of February 23, 1901.³

British Protectorate over Nyasaland, May 14, 1891.—Subsequent to this treaty of July 1890, and very shortly before the signature and publication of the Anglo-Portuguese Treaty, a British protectorate over the Nyasaland districts was finally and formally proclaimed on May 14, 1891.⁴ The protectorate was styled 'the British Protectorate of the Nyasaland districts'. By a later notification of February 22, 1893, the name was changed to that of 'the British Central Africa Protectorate'; but the name 'Nyasaland Protectorate' was revived in 1907.

Before the protectorate was actually proclaimed, Sir H. H. Johnston had been appointed, as from February 1, 1891, to administer it as Commissioner and Consul-General. It will be borne in mind that Anglo-Portuguese relations and agreements included southern and southern central Africa south and north of the Zambezi, and not Nyasaland alone. In February–April 1891

¹ See Hertslet, *op. cit.*, vol. iii, p. 1071.

² These articles are given in Appendix I to *The Partition of Africa*. For the whole treaty, see Africa, No. 6 (1890), C. 6046, July 1890, and Hertslet, *op. cit.*, vol. iii, pp. 899–906.

³ Treaty Series, No. 8, 1902, Cd. 1009, March 1902, and Hertslet, *op. cit.*, vol. iii, p. 925.

⁴ See Appendix, p. 84.

the field of operations of the British South Africa Company was extended to cover what is now Northern Rhodesia ; and Johnston, in addition to being Commissioner of Nyasaland, acted as administrator for the company north of the Zambezi, the company contributing to the cost of the Nyasaland Protectorate. This arrangement ended in 1895, when the company took over the administration of its own territories. Johnston was Commissioner from 1891 to 1897, when he was succeeded by Sir Alfred Sharpe. Before he ended his active work in the Protectorate in 1896, he and his able officers had effectually put down the slave-trade in these regions, and had given peace and order to Nyasaland.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) RELIGIOUS

THE table of religions in the Census report for 1911 gives some 82,000 Christians as against rather less than 58,000 Mohammedans, but the figures are incomplete, and probably little more than rough estimates. Mohammedanism is a concomitant of Arab infusion and influence; it does not appear whether or not it is on the increase. The large majority of the natives 'may be classed generally as pagans with a very undeveloped type of religion'.

(2) POLITICAL

On May 11, 1902, 'the British Central Africa Order in Council, 1902' was issued, making further provision for the administration of the Protectorate. In 1904 the charge of the Protectorate was transferred from the Foreign Office to the Colonial Office; and on July 6, 1907, 'the Nyasaland Order in Council, 1907' was issued, under which the Protectorate is now administered. It changed the name of the Protectorate, appointed a governor instead of a commissioner, and gave it a constitution with executive and legislative councils. The law is British law supplemented by local ordinances. There is a High Court, from which appeals lie to the Court of Appeal for Eastern Africa at Mombasa.

(3) EDUCATIONAL

Education is entirely in the hands of the various missionary bodies, and industrial education has been

kept in the foreground. The Christian missions have, beyond question, done excellent educational work, the annual report on the Protectorate for 1915-16 giving a total of 2,067 schools, with a roll of 78,064 boys and 53,591 girls, and an average attendance of 51,409 boys and 33,766 girls. No less than ten missionary societies maintained and controlled schools, receiving between them a Government grant of £1,000. In number of schools and scholars the Livingstonia Mission of the Free Church of Scotland heads the list.

(4) NAVAL AND MILITARY

There is a native police, and armed forces are represented by two battalions of the King's African Rifles. There are gunboats or armed steamers on Lake Nyasa.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

THE internal and external means of communication of Nyasaland are both unsatisfactory for purposes of trade.

Within the Protectorate, between the lake and the head of the railway, there is a gap in the main trade-route which is inadequately bridged by the recently completed motor road. Produce from the lake-shore districts has thus to be discharged and loaded once more than should be necessary, inevitably suffers delay in transit, and pays disproportionately high rates for slow and rough transport across the gap. The extension of the railway to the lake is an urgent necessity.

For its external trade the Protectorate, lying far back from the coast-line, requires an easy, rapid, and unbroken route to and from a good harbour on the Indian Ocean. The railway runs at present from Blantyre to Chindio on the Zambezi : there the journey is broken, and passengers and goods are conveyed on small river-craft down the Zambezi to Chinde, a port so inadequate that cargo has to be trans-shipped by small steamer either to liners lying well out to sea or to the port of Beira, some 150 miles distant. The delays and trans-shipments incidental to this route can only be eliminated by the completion of a railway from Chindio to Quelimane or to the better-equipped port of Beira.

Details of the proposed railways designed to remedy the defects in the through trade-route from lake to coast are given below, in the sections on railways

(pp. 28-34) and on ports (pp. 36, 37). It may be noticed that the distinction between internal and external means of communication is difficult to maintain in the case of Nyasaland. The ports on Lake Nyasa lie within the country, but afford communication with foreign territory; Chinde, though serving as the seaport, is scarcely an integral part of the Protectorate, and the railway even within the frontiers serves mainly the purposes of external rather than internal trade and communication.

(1) INTERNAL

(a) *Roads, Paths, and Tracks*

Without some experience of travel in undeveloped tropical countries, a certain effort of imagination is required to realize the character of the road communications and the difficulties of road-making in Central Africa. Tropical rains periodically convert the beaten tracks into stretches of deep mud; flood water washes away the surface or scores it with ruts that obstruct the passage of wheeled traffic; a luxuriant growth of high grasses and sub-tropical vegetation threatens to submerge the roadway, and the whole system has to undergo an annual clearing and re-making to render it practicable for the dry season. To the difficulties imposed by nature are added those arising from the expense of road maintenance and bridge construction, from the scantiness of funds available—though this is partly counter-balanced by the cheapness of labour—and from the training and management of the native workmen. Judged in the light of these considerations and not by comparison with the age-old highways of wealthy European countries enjoying a temperate climate, the existing road-system of Nyasaland, inaugurated less than thirty years ago,

will be found to be creditable to the energy of its engineers and the foresight of the Government. In some instances local roads have been constructed through the enterprise and at the expense of planters, who in providing thus for their own transport requirements have rendered a public service.

The roads now in existence have an aggregate length of about 3,200 miles. They are classified as wagon roads, main roads, and carrier roads.

Wagon roads, some 570 miles in extent in 1916, include a few metalled roads, of comparatively small mileage. Of these by far the most important is the motor road from Blantyre to Zomba (42 miles), with the further stretch from Zomba to Liwonde and Fort Johnston (77 miles), to which a metalled surface was given in the course of the war. This, the main trade-route to Lake Nyasa, was used by numbers of motor-cars and lorries conveying supplies for the columns operating against the Germans in East Africa. For the conveyance of Government passengers and goods a motor-lorry service is maintained between Limbe, the first station on the railway after Blantyre, and Zomba.

Other metalled roads are being built, or planned, to act as feeder roads to the railway; Luchenza station is connected thus with the Mlanje plateau. Unmetalled wagon roads run from Blantyre to Cholo, to Katunga and thence to Chiromo, to Mneni, and to Mpimbi. These are provided with bridges over streams, and, having a cambered surface and a breadth of 20 ft., can be used by ox-wagons throughout the dry season.

Main roads are similar in character to wagon roads, but being narrower are less suitable for heavy vehicles than for hand-wagons, rickshas, and bicycles. Roads of this class traverse the Protectorate from south to north. At the southern extremity routes alternative

to the wagon roads link Chiromo with Blantyre, and Blantyre again with Liwonde. From Liwonde a trunk road, 482 miles in length, runs first north-west to Ncheu, Fort Mlangani, Dedza, and Lilongwe, and thence in a general northerly direction to Dowa and Ngara, near Mzimba, and onwards to Jakwa, Florence Bay, Deep Bay, and Karonga. Karonga again is the starting-point of the Stevenson road running by Fort Hill, Fife, and Abercorn from Lake Nyasa to Lake Tanganyika, a distance of about 60 miles within and 170 miles beyond the Protectorate frontier. Several main roads connect the trunk route with the shores of the lakes, viz. through Mzimba to Chinteché, from Ngara to Kota Kota, from Dowa to Domira Bay, and from Dedza to Ndindi. From Dowa there is also a main road to Fort Manning on the Rhodesian frontier. Farther south Mlanje is similarly connected with Blantyre, Zomba with Mlanje and with Chikala, and Fort Johnston with Fort Maguire. The aggregate length of all the main roads was 713 miles in 1916.

Carrier roads, again, are narrower than main roads, being indeed little more than tracks or paths cleared periodically of bordering grasses and vegetation. As the name implies, they are primarily intended to allow the passage of native porters, but they may also be used by bicycles and even rickshas. There are approximately 1,900 miles of these cleared paths in the Protectorate. The native paths, uncleared and therefore practically obliterated or overgrown with vegetation after every rainy season, are infinite in number, but are of merely local utility.

Means of transport are various. Merchandise is carried sometimes by ox-wagons, sometimes, especially in more remote districts, by native porters. Oxen and donkeys may be employed only in areas free from tsetse fly. Hand-carts are useful for conveying stores.

Travellers may still use the *machila*, a hammock slung on a pole and borne by a team of two to eight natives. Rickshas are available on the better-class roads. For personal use, bicycles are convenient for short journeys; motor-bicycles also suit local conditions, and were growing in popularity before the war. With the increase in the mileage of metalled roads, motor vehicles are coming into favour, and will probably become in the early future the commonest means of commercial transport between railway or steamboat and plantation or store.

(b) *Waterways*

With two exceptions the lakes and rivers of the Protectorate are of no importance and of scarcely any use as channels of communication. Those exceptions are Lake Nyasa and the Shire river; but whereas the former is a factor of great and increasing significance in both the internal and external trade of Nyasaland, the latter, which twenty years ago was a waterway of the first rank, carrying practically the whole foreign trade of the country as far north as Chiromo or even Katunga and affording a further navigable stretch between Liwonde and Lake Nyasa, is now, owing chiefly to the fall in the level of the lake, a shrunken stream of little utility even in its lower reaches and even in the rainy season. Its existence has latterly hampered rather than helped development, inasmuch as it tended to delay the construction of the railway from Port Herald southward to the Zambezi. Had there been no Shire, there might now have been a railway running all the way from the Zambezi to Lake Nyasa.

The upper waters of the *Shire* used to be navigable from its outlet from the lake as far as Matope (about 75 miles) in the rainy season, and as far as Liwonde

(about 45 miles) between May and December. A service of shallow-draught steamers was maintained during the greater part of the year between Fort Johnston and Liwonde. Owing, however, to the shrinkage already mentioned in the level of the lake, together with the accumulation of *sudd* and the development of sand-bars and shallows, this part of the river has since 1916 been totally unfitted for navigation.

The lower Shire was formerly the chief and practically the only route of entry for external trade. It was then navigable upwards from the Zambezi as far within the Protectorate as Chikwawa or Katunga in the rainy season, and in the other months as far as Chiromo. Before the Shire Highlands Railway was completed, the practicable head of navigation for steamers had receded from Chiromo to Port Herald, but in recent years Port Herald has in turn ceased to be accessible for the greater part of the year, and an extension of the railway southwards to the Zambezi has been found necessary. The Zambezi, however, is also failing, and even Chindio, the present terminus of the railway, cannot now be reached without difficulty by river steamers during the dry season. Unless, therefore, as a result of the blocking of its outlet, Lake Nyasa should again rise to such a level as to break through the barrier and once more fill the river channel for a cycle of years—a contingency which is far from probable—the Shire will in future be of no practical use for navigation, and the railway will supersede the Zambezi-Shire services maintained in the past by the light-draught stern-wheel steamers of the African Lakes Corporation and the British Central Africa Company. On the other hand, the use of flying boats on the Zambezi and its tributaries, and perhaps on Lake Nyasa, is an interesting possibility of the future.

Of the other rivers of Nyasaland, the Ruo is navigable, by canoes only, for some 12 miles above its junction with the Shire at Chiromo, while the Songwe, North Rukuru, South Rukuru, Bua, and Lintipe, feeders of Lake Nyasa, are also used by canoes to some extent; but no other stream discharging into the Shire or Lake Nyasa, and no affluent of Lake Shirwa, Lake Chiuta, or the River Lujenda, is of any value as a waterway. Nor, again, is navigation for commercial purposes possible on the shallows of Lake Shirwa, on the reedy swamps of Lake Chiuta, or on Lake Pamalombe, which was once fed by the overflow from Nyasa but is now almost entirely choked with sand and *sudd*.

Lake Nyasa, despite the fall in its level, is likely to gain rather than lose in importance in the future, as the country round the lake is developed and trade with neighbouring territories expands. Its remoteness from the railway has limited its utility in the past, but a great impetus will be given to agricultural and perhaps mineral production and consequently to external trade, as soon as a through connexion with the coast is secured. The Nyasa terminus of any such line is certain to become the collecting station for all the produce from the lake-shore districts and the most important entrepôt for the trade of the Protectorate.

Navigation is practicable throughout the length of Lake Nyasa, the depth of which is such as to allow the use of much larger vessels than any hitherto employed. The registered tonnage of the Government steamship *Guendolen* is 350; of the *Queen Victoria*, owned by the African Lakes Corporation, 195; of the *Domira*, the property of the same company, 70; and of the *Chauncy Maples*, a mission vessel, 214. The *Hermann von Wissman*, a German gunboat of 90 tons, was disabled by the *Guendolen* on August 14, 1914,

and was subsequently destroyed. There are two other steamers of smaller tonnage, and a number of sailing vessels.

Of the lake ports the chief are Karonga, Kasweras, Deep Bay, Florence Bay, Ruarwe, Nkata Bay, Bandawe, Bana, Kota Kota, Domira Bay, Monkey Bay, Fort Johnston, Makandanji, and Fort Maguire, all within the Protectorate; Mtengula, in Portuguese territory; Wiedhafen, Alt-Langenburg, and Mwaya, in conquered East Africa. Kota Kota and Karonga are noteworthy, the former as the trade port for north-eastern Rhodesia, the latter as the terminus of the Stevenson road between Nyasa and Tanganyika. Kota Kota has a good harbour, but Karonga is much exposed. Kasweras, Domira Bay, and Bana have sheltered anchorages; the best of all is Monkey Bay, in British territory. There is fair anchorage off Likoma Island, the head-quarters of the Universities Mission. All the other harbours suffer either from obstructions in the shape of sandbanks or bars at the river-mouths, or from lack of shelter from the violent winds that periodically sweep the lake.

(c) *Railways*

(i) *The Railway System: Route and Mileage.*—The Protectorate is served by one railway line, extending from Blantyre to Port Herald and from Port Herald across the frontier to the Zambezi. The section north of Port Herald constitutes the Shire Highlands Railway; the southern section is known as the Central Africa Railway.

The Shire Highlands Railway was designed to provide a railway connexion between the centre of the Protectorate and the perennial head of navigation on the Zambezi-Shire route. As originally planned it was to link Blantyre with Chiromo (83 miles), but

subsequently, owing to the difficulty of navigating the Shire River from Port Herald to Chiromo, provision had to be made for adding 30 miles to the length of the line and making Port Herald the southern terminus. The railway, 113 miles in length, was completed in 1908.

Port Herald, however, has in recent years been inaccessible to river steamers for more than half the year, and it therefore became necessary to extend the railway southwards to the Zambezi. The terminus eventually selected was Chindio, which lies in Portuguese territory on the north bank of the Zambezi, above its junction with the Shire. The extension, known as the Central Africa Railway, was completed in 1915. Its length is $60\frac{1}{2}$ miles, of which 16 miles fall within Nyasaland, making the total length of railway within the Protectorate 129 miles.

(ii) *Details of Construction.*—The Shire Highlands Railway cost more than a million pounds to construct, so that the average cost per mile reached the high figure of about £9,000. Most of the constructional work was very heavy, with high embankments and deep cuttings, though without tunnels. There are 66 bridges having a length of 30 ft. or more; the largest are the girder bridge over the Mswadzi river, and the bridge across the Shire at Chiromo, which is built on screw piles of $2\frac{1}{2}$ ft. diameter, with five pairs of girders of $42\frac{1}{2}$ ft. span, and one lifting span of 100 ft., moved by counterweights. The gauge of the line is the standard Cape gauge of 3 ft. 6 in. There is a high percentage of curvature, and in consequence the maximum speed does not exceed 20 miles an hour. In normal times two passenger trains run in each direction every week, and goods trains run in accordance with the demands of the traffic. It is quite clear that there is ample carrying capacity on the existing

line for all the traffic likely to offer itself for many years to come. The whole line, 174 miles long, is managed by the Shire Highlands Railway Company, which for this service on the southern section receives 10 per cent. of the net earnings of the Central Africa Railway Company.

(iii) *Finances*.—The planning and construction of both the existing railways appear to have been due mainly to the enterprise of the British Central Africa Company, which also takes an active interest in plans for further development. This company is the parent of the Shire Highlands Railway Company and of the Central Africa Railway Company, in both of which it retains a controlling interest. It has obtained concessions for building a line in the future to connect Lakes Nyasa and Tanganyika and for bridging the Zambezi at or near Chindio ; it is also understood to be interested in the projected railway between Chindio and Beira. In raising the capital required for the construction of the Central Africa Railway the company received material assistance from the British Cotton Growing Association.

The Protectorate Government has also been active in assisting railway construction. For building the first line the British Central Africa Company obtained the grant of 361,000 acres of land, but this was afterwards redeemed by the Government at the price of 10s. per acre. Government has further guaranteed to make up the net income of the Central Africa Railway Company for a fixed term of years to 4 per cent. of its capital of £500,000 ; thus in 1916 the company's net earnings were £6,905, and Government supplied the sum of £13,095 required to raise its income to £20,000.

The urgent need of extending the line northward to the lake was emphasized by successive governors,

and the Imperial Government at last made provision for this extension in the East Africa Loans Bill, which was passed by Parliament in 1913. Under this Act Nyasaland was voted a grant of £803,000, that is to say, £647,000 for railway extension and £156,000 for the improvement of road communications. Owing to the war, however, the loan has not yet been made available; it is probable, moreover, that the sum originally assigned for the railway extension would now prove quite insufficient to meet the increased cost of materials and of transport.

(iv) *Adequacy to Economic Needs; Proposed Extensions.*—The acknowledged inadequacy of the railway system consists first in its failure to serve any of the districts north of the Shire highlands. Two-thirds of the Protectorate lie within easy reach of steamer services on Lake Nyasa; but the development of the whole of this northern region is conditional on the extension of the railway to the lake, since under present conditions of transport none but the most highly priced and least perishable of its products can be marketed at a profit. The second weakness of the system is its failure to reach a commodious seaport. At the railway terminus at Chindio, outgoing freight is transferred to the river steamers and conveyed down the Zambezi to Chinde. The Zambezi can no longer be regarded as an adequate waterway: the river services are comparatively slow and are subject to congestion and delays; and Chinde at the Zambezi mouth is far from being a satisfactory harbour, since two trans-shipments are necessary for all cargo in transit, and outgoing freight is liable to further delays. If Protectorate produce is to be dispatched to foreign markets expeditiously and in good condition, the railway must be continued through to Quelimane or to Beira.

The extensions which have been proposed, with

a view either to remedying these defects or to opening up new channels of access, are the following :

- (i) Blantyre (or Luchenza) to Lake Nyasa ;
- (ii) Lake Nyasa to Lake Tanganyika ;
- (iii) Chindio to Beira ;
- (iv) Chindio to Quelimane ;
- (v) Mossuril (Mosoril) Bay (opposite Mozambique Island) to Lake Shirwa ;
- (vi) Port Amelia (Pemba Bay) to Lake Nyasa ;
- (vii) Lake Nyasa to north-eastern Rhodesia.

(i) There are two possible routes by which the railway might be extended northward to Lake Nyasa. Government officials appeared formerly to favour the route, for which the preliminary surveys were made, from Luchenza *via* Zomba to the south-eastern arm of the lake. The alternative route lies to the west. Starting from Blantyre, or possibly from some other point on the present railway, the proposed line would run north, cross the Shire river at a point between Liwonde and Matope, and terminate in a station on the south-western arm of Lake Nyasa.

Of the two, the former line would be the shorter and presumably the cheaper to construct, and it would give slightly lower freights for traffic to and from the lake. It would, however, traverse a region of little agricultural value, and would certainly seem to be less well adapted than the alternative route for developing the rich districts of central and northern Nyasaland, and less conveniently located for possible further extensions to the north-western districts.

(ii) The British Central Africa Company has secured permission to build a line from the north end of Lake Nyasa to the south end of Lake Tanganyika. This line, however, is not likely to be built before the lake is connected by railway with a seaport.

(iii) The connexion with the coast would be most naturally and advantageously effected by extending the existing line southward from Chindio to Beira. Beira is better equipped than any other seaport which might serve as the outlet for the traffic of Nyasaland, and would have no difficulty in coping with the extra traffic that the Zambezi line would attract to its wharves. Preliminary surveys have been made; the line, as now projected, will be 158 miles long, and will traverse country presenting few engineering difficulties. The capital required is said to be forthcoming, and hopes are entertained that construction may be begun in the course of 1920 and completed within a year. Details of the financial arrangements have not been made public, but it may be presumed that the British Central Africa Company and the Companhia de Moçambique are chiefly interested.¹ The former company holds the concession to build the bridge across the Zambezi, but the needs of Nyasaland traffic at this point would be met sufficiently well for a number of years by a less costly expedient, such as a river ferry or an aerial wireway.

(iv) Quelimane offers an alternative as a seaport for the Protectorate. A railway from Quelimane to the interior is now under construction, and was expected to attain a length of 62 miles by the end of 1917. Having a shorter distance to traverse, it has secured an initial start from the proposed Chindio-Beira line, over which it possesses the further advantage that between Chindio and Quelimane there is no Zambezi to cross. But lack of capital is likely to delay the completion of this line, and if the Beira-Zambezi railway should be finished first, the facilities offered by

¹ The financial arrangements have now (Jan. 1920) been completed, and an official guarantee has been obtained.

the port of Quelimane are not such as to be likely to draw away from Beira any considerable portion of Nyasaland traffic.

(v) A line starting from Mossuril Bay, opposite Mozambique Island, has been constructed some 20 miles inland, and is projected to traverse Mozambique District and reach the Protectorate at or near Lake Shirwa. There is no likelihood of this railway being carried through to British territory within any small number of years.

(vi) Another railway project was embodied in the terms of the charter granted in 1891 to the Companhia do Nyassa, which undertook to build a railway across Portuguese Nyasaland to Lake Nyasa. The route was surveyed, the terminus selected being Port Amelia, situated on the excellent natural harbour of Pemba Bay. The company, however, has not been able to find the capital necessary for the railway scheme, which would do much to open up a region of attractive possibilities. But in any case, the projected line, some 500 miles in length, could scarcely compete for the trade of the British Protectorate with the shorter route, of about 400 miles, to Beira.

(vii) A railway connexion between north-eastern Rhodesia and Nyasaland is a likely development, but in this case no definite project has yet been made public. Mention has been made of a possible railway from the lake to Fort Jameson, but the route of any such line is not likely to be fixed until the terminus of the Blantyre-Nyasa line has been agreed upon. Were the latter line to strike the south-western arm of Lake Nyasa, its extension to Fort Jameson would give north-eastern Rhodesia a shorter route to the coast, at Beira, than any possible branch lines from the existing Rhodesian system.

(d) Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones

The postal establishment in recent years has comprised 19 post offices and 7 sub-offices, and the total number of letters and postal packages of all kinds dealt with has exceeded 2,000,000 per annum. Between 1912 and 1917 expenditure averaged £5,700 and revenue slightly less than £5,000, though in 1913-14 the sales of a new issue of stamps raised the figure to £7,012.

The main telegraph system of the Protectorate is owned and managed by the African Transcontinental Telegraph Company, whose line runs from Umtali, in Southern Rhodesia, to Tete on the Zambezi, and thence to Chikwawa, Blantyre, Zomba, Liwonde, Fort Johnston and up the western coast of Lake Nyasa to Karonga and Fort Hill, crossing thereafter the extremity of Northern Rhodesia and reaching Bismarckburg and Ujiji on Lake Tanganyika. That part of this wire which falls within the Protectorate frontiers measures 590 miles; the branch lines, from Chikwawa to Chiromo, and from Domira Bay to Fort Jameson (north-eastern Rhodesia), measure 67 and 128 miles respectively.

The rate for telegrams to stations within the Protectorate is 3*d.* per word, with a minimum charge of 2*s.* 6*d.*

A telegraph line runs along the Shire Highlands and Central Africa railways. Its length north of the frontier is 129 miles, so that the total telegraph mileage for the Protectorate is 914.

There is a telephone system at Zomba, connecting the various Government offices. The total length of wire is 13 miles, and in 1914 there were 21 connexions.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) *Ports*

Though Nyasaland has no coast-line, it has, paradoxically, an ocean port of its own, for in 1892 the British Government, anxious to secure a permanently open route to the Protectorate, obtained from Portugal a 99-years' lease of a concession at Chinde, which, though it remains under the sovereignty of Portugal, is exempt from all Portuguese rates, taxes, and customs duties, and is administered by a Nyasaland official, styled 'British Vice-Consul and Agent'. The concession lies at the mouth of the most easily navigated branch of the Zambezi, but the erosion of its foreshore by the river current and ocean tides is proceeding at the rate of about 15 yds. a year, and it has been found necessary to secure from the Portuguese Government an extension of the original plot, which was rapidly disappearing.

Practically the whole of the imports and exports of Nyasaland pass through Chinde on their way up or down the Zambezi. The cargo handled may be roughly estimated to amount to 30,000 tons per annum. In 1913 the exports, consisting of sugar, salt, wax, raw cotton, live-stock, rubber, ivory, and bark, were valued at £244,179, while imports, consisting of textiles, provisions, cement, iron and steel, agricultural machinery, soap, and tea, amounted to £420,535.

Chinde harbour is a poor one; the ocean-going vessels that call there have to moor far out from the shore, and the loading and discharging of cargo is accomplished with such inconvenience and delay that the vessels of most East African services use Beira as an entrepôt, cargo being conveyed by tug and lighter to and from Chinde, a distance of about 150 miles. It may be regarded as certain that Chinde will lose its

importance for Nyasaland trade as soon as the railway is completed from Chindio to Beira, though it may still retain a fraction of its trade with the Zambezia district of Portuguese East Africa.

The chief shipping lines which before the war served the Protectorate through Chinde, direct or *via* Beira, were the Union Castle line from Southampton, the Aberdeen line from London, the Empresa Nacional de Navegação from Lisbon, and the Deutsche Ost-Afrika Linie from Hamburg, Antwerp, and Southampton. This German line ran two tenders, the *Kadett* and *Adjutant*, especially for service at Chinde and to and from Beira. The British Central Africa Company latterly ran a service of two small steamers between Beira and Chinde.

The ports on Lake Nyasa, mentioned on p. 28, furnish opportunities for direct trade with the interior of Portuguese East Africa and of what was German territory, and for transit trade with north-eastern Rhodesia. Their external trade has hitherto been of slight importance, but there are possibilities of considerable development in the future, for the lake-shore districts are no less promising on the north and east than on the west, and their latent resources were observed by numbers of white men during the recent campaign in German and Portuguese East Africa.

(b) *Cables and Wireless Communication*

The African Trans-Continental Telegraph Company's line communicates with Northern Rhodesia and conquered East Africa, and also with Southern Rhodesia and the Union of South Africa.

Cable communication with Europe is conducted either along this land line and by eastern or western cable, or along the Portuguese wire from Chiromo to

Chinde and thence by the Eastern Telegraph Company's cables. This company has cables to Aden, India and China, Mauritius, and Australia.

Wireless stations for military use were established during the war on Lake Nyasa and in Portuguese East Africa, but having been set up for a special purpose they have by now presumably been dismantled.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

(a) *Supply of Labour ; Emigration and Immigration*

That the Protectorate possesses an ample reservoir of native labour is evident from the official estimate of the population, which indicates that in 1916-17 there were more than one and a quarter million of natives and less than 800 Europeans, the average density of population being 28 to the square mile. The industries of the country are those of agriculture and of the preparation for export of raw materials, such as cotton, tobacco, and sisal hemp. There are no great manufactures and no mines ; railway construction has only periodically required large numbers of labourers. The Protectorate natives are not averse from working on plantations, and Government, without resorting to coercion, encourages them to seek such employment by remitting half of the hut tax of any native who has worked for at least one month for a European employer. Natives, however, will seldom work away from their homes for many months consecutively : during the rainy season, between October and March, in particular, when planters are most anxious to have their ploughing and planting or sowing completed in time and readily offer higher rates of pay, the natives usually prefer to attend to the hoeing of their own plots, which at other

times are left to the care of the women and children. Women seldom work on the plantations, but native children are frequently employed for cropping and for catching insects.

In pre-war years, therefore, planters who were careful to engage labourers in anticipation of their requirements for the season had no great difficulty in securing a sufficient number. The war created certain special conditions, the effects of which are likely to be felt for some years. Large numbers of men were employed as carriers in the East Africa campaign, at much higher rates of pay than had been usual in peace time. Government also took steps to stimulate domestic production of food-stuffs, and it is possible that natives may now prove reluctant to accept employment at pre-war rates, and may increasingly prefer to cultivate cotton, rice, beans, or ground nuts on their own account.

The chief plantation area of the Protectorate is the Shire highlands, a region which includes the districts of Blantyre, Zomba, and Mlanje. The opportunities of employment which are offered here attract every year from March onwards a very considerable force of volunteer labourers from the north-western districts, who return home before the following rains. There is thus a distinct ebb and flow of labour within the Protectorate. There is also a similar movement to and from the contiguous territories of Rhodesia and Portuguese East Africa. Before the war the number of migrant labourers attracted by the relatively high wages of the Zambezi sugar plantations and Rhodesian mines was estimated to range between 15,000 and 20,000. They usually returned after a season's absence, and the earnings they brought back formed an appreciable contribution to the modest wealth of the Protectorate. The Government viewed this exodus of able-bodied labourers with some concern, as is shown by the enunciation of policy

in the Colonial Report on Nyasaland for 1910-11. 'As regards native labour, the Government has steadily pursued the policy of discouraging the emigration of natives to other territories by every just and lawful means in its power, being confident, in view of the rapid increase of agricultural industry in the Protectorate itself, and the ample opportunities of local employment which now exist, that such emigration must eventually be detrimental not only to the interests of local planters and others, but likewise to those of the native community, in whose case the larger wages obtainable in South Africa must be discounted by the prejudicial effect produced by intercourse with more sophisticated centres upon their simplicity of character, upon their habits of life, and upon the lot of their wives and families remaining behind. While, however, the Protectorate Government discountenances emigration for the above reasons as far as it legitimately can, it recognizes that natives who have formed a settled determination to quit Nyasaland must be allowed to do so, and to such natives passes are issued accordingly.' The recruitment of labourers within Nyasaland for employment elsewhere was forbidden, and steps were taken to prohibit their employment in the mines of the Rand as soon as it became clear that when so occupied they were prone to contract tuberculosis. They were still allowed—and, moreover, showed an increasing inclination—to leave the Protectorate in order to seek employment in the mines of Southern Rhodesia or the sugar plantations of Portuguese East Africa; but, when the railway was under construction from Port Herald to Chindio, a special ordinance was necessary to sanction the recruitment and engagement of Nyasaland natives for work on the section between the frontier and the Zambezi.

(b) Labour Conditions

The conditions under which labour may be employed within the Protectorate have been carefully formulated by the Government. Contracts may be verbal or written, but a contract for a period exceeding one month cannot be enforced until executed in writing and in the presence of a magistrate. Wages must be paid in cash, with no deductions beyond the amount of any previous part payments. Labourers must be provided with food, with housing of the ordinary sort, and with medical attendance during illness. Alcohol may not be given or sold to any native, except on physician's prescription.

Wages, which up to 1910 had been as low as 3s. per month in the dry season and 4s. during the rainy months, had risen before the war to 5s. and 6s. respectively. Native carpenters, masons, brickmakers, bricklayers, and printers could be engaged at rates of 10s. to 40s. per month, and although their work was unequal, in point of speed and of accuracy, to that of competent European workmen, it was exceptionally useful in a new country. Skilled labourers, however, were apt to migrate southward in order to take advantage of the more favourable opportunities available in Rhodesia and the Union. Native cooks could be hired for 10s. to 20s. per month, and other house-servants were paid from 5s. to 20s.

The general conclusion suggested by these data is that the natives' physical well-being was effectively safeguarded by the Government's regulations, and at the same time the planter was fortunate in being able to secure his services at such low rates, even though in steadiness and competence his work is not comparable with that of the European labourer working in a temperate climate. Circumstances which will tend

to raise the level of wages in future are, in addition to those already mentioned as conditions arising from the war, the natural and normal expansion of native agriculture, which will lessen the available supply of labour, the influx of European settlers, which will increase the demand, and the improvement in means of communication, which will stimulate native cultivation and will also tend to standardize wages by those offered in adjacent territories. On the other hand, the completion of new railroads and the increasing use of mechanical means of cultivation, of harvesting, and of road transport, will set free a large force of labour now employed in these operations, while periodical failures of crops, such as have been frequent in the past, may also assist at times to swell the supply. On the whole, therefore, there seems to be at present no reason to anticipate any general scarcity of labour or any pronounced difficulty in obtaining plantation hands at rates sufficiently low to make profits possible.

(2) AGRICULTURE

The soils of Nyasaland are of many varieties, ranging from light sand to black cotton soil and to heavy red clay. High temperatures, running up to 120° in the shade during the hotter months, are met with in the Shire valley and in the low-lying plains; at greater altitudes, as in the Shire highlands, the rainfall is heavier, ranging between 40 and 100 in. per annum, while temperatures seldom exceed 96°, and in the cold portion of the dry season fall as low as 40°. This variety of climatic conditions, together with the fairly adequate labour supply, gives scope for the cultivation of many tropical and subtropical plants, and the problem which each European planter has to solve for himself is not so much what particular crop can be grown with success as which of the possible crops will

best repay cultivation under present conditions of transport and freights and of prices in the European market. The remoteness of the Protectorate from the sea, and the difficulties, delays, and cost of the carriage of agricultural produce to Europe, have hitherto compelled planters to devote their chief efforts to high-priced products such as tobacco, cotton, and tea, and to leave almost entirely to natives the cultivation of maize, rice, sesame, ground-nuts, and other grains and oil-producing plants.

Cotton is grown on a large acreage, and tobacco to a much smaller degree, by natives; otherwise the distinction between the agricultural practice of natives and European planters extends to products as well as to methods of cultivation and the scale of operations. The traditional processes still followed by most of the natives are wasteful and destructive. A new plot is cleared by cutting down and burning all wood, bush, and grasses; the ground, enriched by the burnt vegetation, is then hoed and turned over to a depth of a few inches only, and a variety of grains and vegetables is sown or planted, in quantity sufficient to provide for the wants of the cultivator's family. The same plot is used for a few seasons, but when it shows signs of impoverishment of soil it is deserted and left to be overgrown with jungle, while another plot is prepared to be cultivated similarly for a few years and then abandoned in its turn. The use of these unscientific native methods over long periods of time has caused a marked deforestation of areas once well timbered, not only in Nyasaland but over large regions of Central Africa generally. In Nyasaland, there is reason to hope, the spread of better methods among the natives and the well-directed efforts of the Forestry Department will check the annual wastage and bring about a gradual augmentation of forest resources.

The European planter's operations are of a very different character. With a sounder knowledge of the principles of agriculture, and a useful store of information readily placed at his disposal by the Department of Agriculture, he works on a much greater scale, employing a large force of labour, cultivating large fields with far greater effectiveness, making increasing use of agricultural machinery and mechanical transport, growing a relatively vast quantity of produce, preparing it and consigning it to a distant market. For these operations a very considerable capital is essential, and under present-day conditions there seems to be an indifferent chance of success for a plantation with less than £3,000 of capital to finance it. Squatter farming by Europeans, which might involve a certain loss of prestige among the natives, is precluded by the climatic conditions of the Protectorate, since the European settler is not able to endure long hours of manual labour in the open. The number of Europeans in Nyasaland who are primarily agriculturists may be estimated at about 150, a high proportion of these being employees of the larger land companies. In 1916 a total of 52,883 acres was under European cultivation. This included 26,507 acres in Blantyre district, 6,661 in Mlanje, 6,414 in Zomba, 4,360 in West Shire, 3,999 in Ruvo, and much smaller areas in the other districts. These figures make it evident that the chief regions of European cultivation are the Shire and Mlanje highlands and adjacent districts.

The Government Department of Agriculture, organized with the object of controlling and fostering the agricultural industries of the Protectorate, has now a personnel consisting of a director, an agriculturist, four assistant-agriculturists and a clerk, a chief forest-officer, a veterinary bacteriologist, two veterinary officers, and an entomologist. Under the direction of

this staff reports are published and information issued for the guidance of planters and native cultivators, and regulations are drafted for the destruction of pests and for other protective measures, such as the dipping of cattle.

(a) *Vegetable Products*

Coffee was the first and for a number of years the only crop cultivated by planters, and the record annual export, of 2,148,160 lb., was achieved in 1900, before any of the other products had passed the stage of experiment. Coffee was chosen in the first instance because, although it took a few years for the bushes to mature and begin to bear, its cultivation was easy, and, while promising generous profits, demanded no great skill or agricultural experience. But the prosperity of a country which depends on a single branch of agriculture as its only source of exchangeable wealth cannot be secure without a protected market or a monopoly of production. Nyasaland enjoyed neither of these privileges, and when the price of coffee on the European market fell, in consequence chiefly of increased production in Brazil and elsewhere, the cultivation of coffee within the Protectorate inevitably dwindled, until in recent years the annual output has failed to reach one-tenth of the figure for 1900. The falling-off in coffee, however, has been more than balanced by the introduction and development of other staple crops; the basis of production has thus been broadened and the economic position of the Protectorate correspondingly strengthened.

The highest price ever obtained for Nyasaland coffee on the London market was 114s. per cwt. for a few exceptional lots in 1896 and 1897. At this time 100s. per cwt. was a usual quotation, but by 1901 average prices had fallen to about 55s. per cwt., and

since then they have tended rather to decline further than to improve. In addition to low prices the uncertainty of the crop tended to discourage coffee-planting: a good crop requires an unusual combination of climatic and weather conditions—early and plentiful rains, comparatively low temperatures, and an absence of strong winds. For the best results a friable loamy soil, containing lime, is necessary.

In the Shire highlands the variety usually cultivated is Arabica, which has been found after repeated trials to give better returns than the *Stenophylla*, *Liberian*, and *Abeokuta* varieties. The beans when cured should run about 70 or 80 to the ounce, but are frequently only half this weight when the rainfall is low and is not supplemented by irrigation. The market value of a crop varies with the shape as well as the size of the beans, and this depends largely upon the care and efficiency with which the operations of pulping, fermenting, and drying are carried out. Under existing conditions there appears to be little chance of a recovery in coffee-planting in the Protectorate, especially as the output of cotton and tobacco is now approaching 20,000 tons per annum, and these products seem to promise much higher profits than coffee.

Cotton.—The cultivation of cotton in the Protectorate dates from 1901, when experimental parcels were prepared for the European market. Three years later 21,900 acres were under cultivation, and gave an export of 346 tons. This disappointing yield, of 35 lb. per acre, was attributed partly to the selection for cultivation of varieties unsuitable for local conditions, partly to the lack of knowledge and experience on the part of planters. Experiments quickly demonstrated that the type which suited the climatic conditions of the Shire highlands was a long-staple cotton of the American upland class. The selected variety was

readily acclimatized, and surprised its sponsors by improving instead of depreciating in its new environment ; its fibre proved to be of exceptional length and silkiness, and soon won for the Protectorate the reputation of producing the highest-grade upland cotton in the world. Nyasaland upland plants are remarkably hardy, highly resistant to bacterial blight, and particularly well adapted for elevations between 1,000 and 3,000 ft.

The Shire valley was considered more suitable for the high-priced Egyptian varieties, but the experience of recent years seems to suggest that besides giving a small yield, Egyptian cotton is too susceptible to fungoid disease and too sensitive to atmospheric changes to be cultivated successfully, even in this part of the Protectorate.

For a few years after 1904 there was a marked decrease in the acreage under cotton, and a slight decline in the quantity of cotton exported ; but by 1910 the conditions essential for successful production had been ascertained, and acreage and output rose rapidly, until in each of the three years immediately preceding the war more than 33,000 acres were under cotton, and were yielding crops averaging well over 80 lb. of fibre per acre. The outbreak of war led to a temporary fall in prices and an interruption of the progress of the industry, but by 1916 prices had risen far above the pre-war level and ranged between 10*d.* and 1*s.* 3*d.* per lb. on the home markets, while there was a record export of 3,462,408 lb., valued locally at £132,339. It may therefore be said that in spite of this period of low prices and of the high freights and shortage of cargo space prevailing during the later part of the war, the cotton industry of the Protectorate has not been permanently injured, but is, on the contrary, in a particularly favourable position for resuming pro-

gress and undergoing considerable expansion in the immediate future. In particular, a rapid development in the districts bordering the lake is practically certain to follow on the completion of the railway connexion between Beira and Lake Nyasa.

Among the agencies to which the progress hitherto recorded may fairly be attributed are, first, the enterprise of the larger planting companies, such as the British Central Africa Company, the African Lakes Corporation, and the A. L. Bruce Estates; second, the encouragement given to the nascent industry by the British Cotton Growing Association, which established ginneries, offered remunerative prices for standard cotton, and through its local agents made advances on unharvested crops; and third, the measures taken by the Protectorate Government. These include the publication of reports on all matters affecting the local cultivation of cotton and other crops, the experiments conducted on the two Government farms at Namiwawa and Nyachiperi, and the regulations issued with the object of preventing the introduction or spread of disease and insect pests, and of encouraging the natives to grow cotton. An incentive offered in former years was a rebate of hut tax granted to native cultivators, and continued until the native industry was fully established. The Agricultural Department issues selected seed free of charge, and supervises the work of the trained natives who give instruction in correct methods of cultivation. Markets for the sale of native cotton have been established, and have proved beneficial by securing the natives the advantage of competitive prices, and by teaching them the importance of grading their cotton; while the small toll of 3*d.* per cwt. of native cotton purchased suffices, along with the buyers' licences (10*s.* each), to make the markets practically self-supporting.

In 1908-9 the native cotton crop was 130 tons of seed, yielding 196 bales of 400 lb. of fibre; this was followed, in successive years, by crops of 220, 692, 962, 744, 1,198, 867, 815, and 944 tons. In the last five years before the war the output of native cotton amounted to 24 per cent. of the total export, and although the ratio fell to 17 per cent. for the first three years of war—in consequence, probably, of the absence of many natives on military transport service—there is no question that native cultivation, with an acreage approximating 9,000 as against 30,000 cultivated by European planters, is now firmly established, and will share in any agricultural expansion that may follow the conclusion of peace and the extension of the railway to the lake.

Tobacco is a crop of no less importance to the Protectorate than cotton. Introduced a few years earlier than cotton, it was rather longer in establishing its position and attaining a similar export value. Latterly, however, it has challenged cotton for the first place on the list of exports. Over the seven years ending March 31, 1917, the estimated total values of the cotton and tobacco exports were £516,996 and £514,796 respectively. This approximate equality of values is the more interesting as the two crops are generally regarded as supplementary and are cultivated on the same estates. The tobacco crop is usually harvested in months when cotton requires little attention; tobacco benefits as much from heavy rains as cotton suffers, and both do well in seasons of normal rainfall. The acreage under tobacco in late years has averaged about one-third of the acreage of cotton cultivated by Europeans. On the other hand, the quantity grown and exported has been slightly in excess of the total cotton export, since the average yield of cotton fibre has ranged in late years from

70 to 110 lb. per cultivated acre, whereas the average crop per acre of tobacco has been 300 to 525 lb. Tobacco requires more labour, more attention, and more skill in handling than cotton, and also a much higher expenditure on the operations of cultivating, harvesting, and preparing for market. Acre for acre, expenses are reckoned as about double those of the cotton plantation. One costly item is the erection of a number of curing barns, which before the war used to cost on an average £30 each. But with careful cultivation tobacco is a very sure crop, distinctly harder than cotton, and, apart from its other advantages, it occupies the soil for a comparatively short period and, with a local market available, permits of quick returns as well as attractive profits. Under pre-war conditions it was estimated that a selling price of 4*d.* per lb. was sufficient to cover the cost of production. The action taken on behalf of tobacco by the Imperial Tobacco Company, Ltd., is similar to the assistance given to the cotton industry by the British Cotton Growing Association. The company has established a packing factory at Limbe, and is prepared in normal years to purchase planters' crops cash on delivery, at prices varying from 2*d.* to 8*d.* per lb., according to the quality and curing of the leaf. In 1915 the heavy freights (£14 15*s.* 2*d.* per ton) charged for transport to, England and the shortage of cargo space made it impossible for the Imperial Tobacco Company and other local buyers to purchase the crop at the same rates and in the same quantities as in previous years; but towards the end of the year an improvement in the shipping facilities and the prohibition of the import of tobacco from America into the United Kingdom enabled planters to ship their remaining stocks and sell them at satisfactory prices in the home markets. The following year freights

rose still further, exceeding £20 per ton, but prices were high, and the Nyasaland consignments, profiting by the privileged admission of British-grown tobacco, commanded prices of 9*d.* to 1*s.* 10*d.* per lb. according to grade. It is not to be expected that prices will remain at this level under peace conditions, but the industry has every prospect of success, and expansion is, at least highly probable, as there are large areas where tobacco will thrive and repay cultivation. At present the natives only grow the plant for their own use, as they are unable to cure it for the European market. No doubt, however, some native tobacco is bought, cured, and eventually exported by Europeans.

In the Shire highlands tobacco is planted by preference on rich light grey or sandy soil, but grows sufficiently well on dark loam or heavy soil. For light soils chemical manures, green manures, or leguminous plants are employed as fertilizers. Planters differ considerably as to the varieties of tobacco most suitable for cultivation : the bright, semi-bright, and mahogany types are all grown, and among the favourites are Raglan's Conqueror, White Stem Orinoco, Hester, Adcock, and the Pryors.

Tea.—The export of tea began in 1909, and has increased steadily year by year, reaching in 1916–17 the figure of 420,685 lb., of the estimated local value of £14,023. It therefore now occupies, in respect both of value and of weight, the third place on the list of exports ; and tea was being grown in 1916 on a total area of 4,228 acres. It may be noted that there is a considerable local consumption of tea, and that the production is much higher than the export figures indicate.

Nyasaland tea was sold before the war at 5*d.* to 9*d.* per lb. in London ; in 1916 it was finding a ready sale

at 1s. per lb., a price which, notwithstanding high freights, gave planters a handsome profit. A much greater output in future might therefore be confidently anticipated, were it not that the area suitable for tea-planting is restricted to districts where the rainfall is heaviest. The southern and south-eastern slopes of Mount Mlanje were regarded until lately as the only region in which tea could be grown successfully, but Blantyre and East Africa, Ltd., has obtained good results on its Bandanga estate in the Cholo section of Blantyre district, while experimental plantings recently made in North Nyasa district promise well for the future.

Where the rainfall is sufficiently heavy, tea is an easy crop to cultivate and is little troubled by disease or insects. The tea-planter, however, even more than the coffee-planter, requires a reserve of capital, since the bushes do not come into full bearing until the sixth year. From cotton and tobacco, on the other hand, crops are obtained within a few months of planting. For the treatment of the tea-crop, moreover, the planter has to provide expensive machinery. Several factories, equipped with modern machinery, are established in the Mlanje district, and the rise in the London quotations for Nyasaland tea is doubtless due in part to the improved treatment which the harvested crops now receive.

Rubber.—Twenty years ago the export of wild rubber from Nyasaland exceeded 90,000 lb. in weight and £10,000 in value. The rubber was obtained from the indigenous landolphia vines found near streams throughout the Protectorate. These vines grow slowly and are not suitable for cultivation; and the result of their indiscriminate exploitation in their uncultivated state was to exterminate the vines in some districts, and to produce by 1902 a sudden decrease in

the quantity and value of rubber exported. A more judicious system of treating the underground parts of *Landolphia parvifolia* was introduced and followed for several years by the African Lakes Corporation within an area in West Nyasa district where it held a concession from Government on a royalty basis. In 1910 the product as thus prepared was being sold on the London market at 3s. 9d. to 4s. 4d. when fine white Pará was quoted at 5s. 2½d. The disastrous drop in the price of rubber on the European markets made the collection of wild rubber unprofitable, and by 1914 the harvesting of landolphia had practically ceased.

Meanwhile the production of cultivated rubber had passed through the experimental stage. Trials made with *Funtumia elastica* gave disappointing results, and *Castilloa elastica*, which appeared at first to thrive in West Nyasa, was found to grow too slowly and to require a more evenly distributed rainfall. *Jequie manicoba* and *Remanoo manicoba* also proved unsuccessful. On the other hand, Ceará rubber (*Manihot glaziovii*) soon won favour and was adopted as the standard variety on most plantations. The area under rubber rose from 3,523 acres in 1908 to 10,562 acres in 1913, over three-fourths of it being devoted to Ceará. Pará rubber (*Hevea brasiliensis*) was planted by the African Lakes Corporation in West Nyasa, where the climatic conditions seem favourable to its growth.

The export of rubber reached its lowest mark in 1903-4, and subsequent years showed, in spite of fluctuations, a gradual increase, culminating in the years 1910-13, when the export reached an average value exceeding £10,000. In these years output rose while prices were falling, so that the value of the total crop was fairly constant. But immediately afterwards the slump in the world's rubber markets caused

a severe set-back to the industry, and in 1914 the area under cultivation fell from 10,562 to 5,936 acres. This decrease was, however, partly due to the uprooting of trees found to have been planted in an unsuitable environment. During the first three years of war the acreage increased slightly, and as more young trees came into bearing the output and export showed a distinct advance, the latter reaching the figure of 69,851 lb. in 1916-17. The prospects of the industry are therefore somewhat uncertain at the present time. The gigantic production of rubber in other countries seems likely enough to keep prices at such a low level that estates on which the trees might grow in Nyasaland may be more profitably occupied with other crops. Pará rubber is possibly in a stronger position than Ceará, for the trees of the latter variety yield a rather small quantity of latex and can be tapped profitably only in the few months when the soil is saturated.

Fibres.—The climate and soil of Nyasaland are eminently suitable for the production of various fibres. Indigenous varieties of fibre-bearing plants are 'bow-string hemp' (*Sansevieria* sp.), *denje* (*Sida rhombifolia*), *nzonogwe* (*Triumfetta rhomboidæa*), and *buaze* (*Securidaca longipedunculata*). *Sansevieria*, though it yields an excellent and high-priced fibre, grows too slowly to repay cultivation, and in its natural state is not found in sufficient abundance to be prepared for export. The fibres of *nzonogwe* and *denje* resemble jute; the former is inferior in quality and the plants are not amenable to cultivation. *Buaze* yields a strong fibre, superior to flax and suitable as a textile material for finer fabrics, but besides being hard to cultivate the plant contains much gum, from which the fibre is separated with difficulty.

Ramie (*Boehmeria nivea*) grows luxuriantly when planted in rich loamy soil and irrigated during the dry

season. Its fibre, however, which is very long and exceptionally strong, and when well prepared commands high prices, is embedded in gums, and efficient decorticating machinery has yet to be devised.

Of the imported varieties of fibre-producing plants, *Mauritius hemp* (*Furcroea gigantea*) and *sisal hemp* (*Agave rigida sisalana*) have both been cultivated successfully and on a moderately large scale. Both plants are easily grown, and thrive on loose soil, especially if it is rich as well as loose. Mauritius hemp yields a fibre of rather less value than sisal. The latter, however, is apparently in higher favour with planters and occupies a greater acreage in the Protectorate, though sisal is said to be the hardier variety and more adaptive to varied soils, positions, and climates.

The acreage under sisal and Mauritius hemp together was only 801 in 1916, but the value of fibre exported was £4,056, and it is probable enough that hemp growing will attain considerable proportions in the early future.

Chillies and *Capsicums* can be grown without difficulty, and were formerly regarded as useful subsidiary crops. The standard variety is a capsicum known as 'Nyasaland chilli', similar to the Zanzibar chilli and yielding a vermilion pod from five-eighths to three-quarters of an inch in length. In 1911-12 there were 800 acres under chillies, and the export attained the quantity of 171,673 lb. and the value of £3,219. Overproduction in the Protectorate and the extension of chilli cultivation in East Africa and Uganda caused a flooding of the London market, and prices fell in 1913 from 45/50s. to 25/35s. per cwt. Chilli production in Nyasaland for the time being almost ceased, but war conditions apparently offered special opportunities, for in 1916-17 the acreage rose to 650, and the value of the export was returned as £3,133. It may be

assumed that the chilli market is too limited and too easily swamped to warrant the expectation of any large development of chilli growing in the Protectorate.

Strophanthus, of which three species are found—*S. kombe*, *S. ecaudatus*, and *S. courmontii*—is an indigenous plant growing wild and yielding berries from which a drug useful in cardiac affections is obtained. The export in 1912–13 was valued at £2,623, but four years passed before it again exceeded £200, and even in 1916–17 it was only £1,178.

Rice.—The native cultivation of rice, which achieved a production of 1,264 tons in 1916–17, has been well established since the 'nineties, when it was encouraged in order to provide home-grown supplies for the Protectorate's troops. A similar need, on a larger scale, arose in the last few years, and the native-grown rice found a good local market. The industry, for which the conditions are favourable in the lake-shore districts of Marimba, West and North Nyasa, and Central Angoniland, is capable of great expansion, but is handicapped at present by inadequate communications with the coast.

Fruit of many kinds may be grown in Nyasaland. Peaches, apples, pears, and strawberries are produced, chiefly at the higher elevations, but the climatic conditions naturally suit best the sub-tropical fruits such as mangoes, bananas, pine-apples, oranges, lemons, grenadillas, pawpaws, guavas, and loquats. Fruit is grown for domestic consumption and not for export.

Vegetables.—Besides the indigenous vegetables cultivated by natives, almost all varieties of European vegetables can be grown throughout the year in the highlands. On the lower levels they may be cultivated for four months of the year with some chance of success.

Minor Crops.—Among the minor crops cultivated in

small lots by Europeans are *maize*, *beans*, *wheat*, and *ground-nuts* (*Arachis hypogaea*), in addition to a considerable quantity of greenstuffs grown for fertilizing purposes. None of these crops is a monopoly of the European planter, for all of them figure among the products of native cultivation. The surplus available after the needs of the native population are satisfied is sold to Indian or European traders. The export figures, therefore, show in each case remarkable fluctuations from year to year. The most important crops for export purposes are probably maize and ground-nuts—the former for its value as a food, the latter because of their yield of an oil useful for cooking, lubricating, and lighting, and of their employment in the manufacture of soap and of foodcake for cattle. With better means of external communication a considerable trade might be built up in both products or in their derivatives.

(b) *Animals and Animal Products*

Live-stock.—Cattle-raising is not practicable in regions where tsetse fly is found, and unfortunately the fly is constantly attacking new areas, and causing heavy mortality among the herds both of Europeans and of natives. The best district for cattle seems to be the Angoniland plateaux, where considerable numbers of cattle are owned by natives. Native-owned stock includes representatives not only of the common Afrikander cattle, but also of the smaller humped variety. With the object of improving these breeds Shorthorn and Aberdeen Angus bulls have been introduced, but the cross-bred progeny, while showing an improvement in form and size, has been found to be more liable to diseases than the pure-bred native stock.

Circumstances that are favourable to the development of cattle-raising are the existence, not too far off, of a ready market for live-stock at Salisbury and

Buluwayo, and the increasing use of cattle for agricultural purposes such as cultivating, harvesting, and transport. The creation of an export trade in canned or frozen meat must be regarded as a very remote possibility ; the herds of cattle and flocks of sheep are not yet numerous or large enough to establish any considerable trade in hides, skins, and wool ; while there is no market sufficient for the establishment of dairying on a large scale, though there is one small dairy on the Government farm at Namiwawa.

The numbers of the different kinds of live-stock in the Protectorate in 1916 were returned as follows :

| | <i>European-owned.</i> | <i>Native-owned.</i> |
|-------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
| Cattle | 16,697 | 74,715 |
| Sheep | 1,734 | 32,957 |
| Goats | 868 | 170,563 |
| Pigs | 640 | 22,546 |
| Donkeys | 229 | 0 |
| Mules | 32 | 0 |
| Horses | 5 | 0 |
| Totals | 20,205 | 300,781 |

The climate is too hot for horses, and is trying for mules and even for donkeys. The cattle, sheep, and goats owned by Europeans are mainly pure-bred imported stock or crosses with native breeds : the sheep owned by the natives are of the common fat-tailed species, and their goats are of the small and hardy African variety.

Beeswax and Ivory.—Two animal products of some value are *beeswax* and *ivory*. In recent years the export list has included these two items in nearly equal values, since the annual average of 10,000 lb. of ivory, assessed at 10s. per lb., gave the same total value as the average of 100,000 lb. of beeswax at 1s. per lb. Latterly, however, there has been a noticeable diminution in the ivory export, which seems to indicate a growing scarcity of tusked elephants. The beeswax is obtained

by natives from the honeycomb of wild bees, for which drum-shaped hives are frequently made and suspended from the branches of large trees.

(c) *Forestry*

Cypresses.—The only forests in which valuable timber of large dimensions grows in considerable quantity are the cypress forests of the plateaux and higher slopes of Mount Mlanje. This region is the habitat of the Mlanje cypress (*Widdringtonia whytei*), the timber of which is of high quality, durable and never attacked by white ants. It yields under destructive distillation a dark-coloured oil which is useful as a wood preservative against white ants. The South African yellowwood (*Podocarpus milanjianus*) occurs sporadically on the higher plateaux, while the Uganda juniper (*Juniperus procera*) is also indigenous but of rare occurrence. Numerous other varieties of conifers have been introduced by the Forestry Department.

Hardwoods.—Apart from the cypress forests the woods of the Protectorate contain chiefly scrub and small hardwood trees which are of little utility except as firewood. Large hardwood trees, however, occur here and there, especially in the vicinity of streams at altitudes between 1,500 and 3,500 ft. The most important of these is the *mbawa* or African mahogany (*Khaya senegalensis*), which frequently attains great dimensions and yields excellent timber for furniture. *Mwenya* (*Adina microcephala*) and *mping-u* (*Diospyros* sp.) provide hard timber resistant to white ants or borers. Among other indigenous hardwoods are species of *pterocarpus*, *parkia*, *parinarium*, and *burkea*; while the commoner imported timber trees are true mahogany, East India walnut, silky oak, and many varieties of eucalyptus, now grown extensively for timber and also for firewood.

Acacias.—The indigenous acacias are *A. arabica*, *A. suma*, and *A. farnesiana*. The last of these produces the yellow cassie flowers which in Europe are employed in making scent. The bark and seed-pods of the other varieties contain a high percentage of tannin and are sometimes used for tanning purposes, for which the exotic acacias imported by the Forestry Department may also in time be more extensively utilized.

Palms and Bamboos.—The indigenous palms of the Protectorate include *Borassus flabellifer*, *Hyphaene crinata*, *Raphia vinifera*, *Phoenix reclinata*, and *Elaeis guineensis*. The commercial uses of these palms are well known: the most important is the oil-palm (*Elaeis guineensis*), found on the north-west shore of Lake Nyasa, but hitherto neither grown under cultivation nor commercially exploited in its natural state. Bamboos (*Oxytenanthera sp.*) are found in clumps or groves in many places, and the useful yellow and green striped bamboo (*Bambusa vulgaris*) has been brought from India and grows freely in various localities.

Other Trees.—The rubber-yielding landolphas, the most valuable of which is *Landolphia kirkii*, and the varieties of strophanthus and of fibre-yielding woods, have already been noticed. Some twenty varieties of indigo-bearing trees are found growing plentifully in many districts. Of these *Indigofera arrecta* yields the highest percentage of the valuable indigo dye.

(d) Land Tenure

The land area of Nyasaland is estimated at 25,161,924 acres. It is stated that in 1917 the total number of acres sold and leased was 134,149, and the total number of acres granted under certificate of claim was 3,705,255. More than five-sixths of the land surface thus remains in the possession of the Crown.

A large proportion of the Crown lands is occupied

by native villages and settlements, and a further large proportion is unsuitable for agricultural purposes; but where suitable land is available it may be taken on agricultural lease for 7, 14, or 21 years at an annual rental of 5 per cent. of its assessed value. The lease of an area occupied predominantly by tea, rubber, or other slow-maturing crops may at the lessee's option be extended to a term of 99 years. The rental under such leases may average from 1s. 6d. per acre in the more closely settled districts, and from 1s. per acre elsewhere. A further charge of $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per acre is made in the shape of a tax levied on all land held by Europeans for agricultural purposes.

Grazing leases, giving no rights beyond the use of the land for grazing, are granted for areas up to 20,000 acres, at a rental of $\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 1d. per acre. Plots for trading stores, up to one acre in extent, are let on leases renewable annually at a rent of £5 per plot. Building leases of land within townships and settlements are granted for 21 years, with option of renewal or purchase, at annual rents varying from £20 per acre in Blantyre, Zomba, and Port Herald to £5 in small and remote settlements.

Plantations, or estates suitable for plantations, may be purchased or leased from the individual owners or land companies who hold the land which has passed out of Government possession. The average purchase price per acre in recent years has run from £1 10s. upwards; and if any considerable influx of settlers should take place in future, values would rise much higher, as there is no great area of plantation land available in the districts most suitable for Europeans.

(3) FISHERIES

The Protectorate has no fisheries conducted on a large scale. The natives, however, using grass or

reed traps or nets along the shore, or lines from canoes in deeper water, take large quantities of fish from Lake Nyasa. The natives of Lake Shirwa catch fish and sell it in the Zomba and Blantyre markets. Among the Anyanjas of Lake Nyasa a communal system of fishing is in vogue; the subsidiary operations, such as net-making and canoe-building, are undertaken by different members of the tribe, and the catch of fish is distributed by the village headman among all who have a vested right in it. It has been suggested that a trawler could be profitably employed on Lake Nyasa if there were a sufficient market, but one or two motor-driven fishing-boats would probably meet any demand likely to arise for many years to come. The lake abounds in fish of many varieties, including *usipa*, a small fish tasting like whitebait, a number of species of perch, a carp similar to the Indian mahseer, *mpasa*, a salmon, running up to 15 lb., and the great *nanda* and *kampango*, which measure as much as 6 ft. and 12 ft. in length respectively.

The smaller lakes and the rivers of the low country contain numerous varieties of good fish, of the type of perch, carp, and barbel. The sporting tiger-fish is found in the Lower Shire and Ruo rivers. In recent years trout have been imported: they thrive in the streams of the highlands.

(4) MINERALS

The known mineral deposits of the Protectorate are of no great value, with the doubtful exception of coal.

Mica is the only mineral which has hitherto been worked for export. It is found in scattered surface deposits in the Upper Shire and South Nyasa districts, but it is only the deposits of the Dedza region that have been exploited. Operations were begun in 1910,

and in 1911-12 an output of 66 tons was attained; but year by year the quantity dwindled until in 1916 production ceased altogether. The total amount of mica exported in the seven years was only 125 tons, valued at less than £14,000.

Coal is found in the West Shire district, not far from the River Shire, and in greater quantity and superior quality at Mount Waller and elsewhere in the North Nyasa district, near the lake shore. It is probable that the beds in the latter district will be worked when the railway reaches the southern end of the lake.

Iron ore used to be smelted by the natives in certain parts, especially on the high plateaux, where the red laterite of the surface yields limonite (oxide of iron). Native appliances were too primitive to deal with the richer deposits of iron ores, ilmenite and magnetite, which occur in the gneiss that constitutes a large proportion of the surface of Nyasaland. Within the gneiss there are occurrences of *graphite* in small quantities, of *garnets* of poor quality, and of *limestone*. Limestone is quarried and burned near Liwonde and on Nchisi Island in Lake Shirwa.

Plumbago of good quality is said to occur in West Nyasa and North Nyasa districts.

Gold is found in quartz pegmatites in the Shire highlands, but not in paying quantities.

Asbestos is found in various localities, and discoveries of *galena*, *copper*, and *quicksilver* in undefined quantities have been reported.

A prospecting licence, good for six months, costs £1, and entitles the holder to prospect on Crown lands for gold, silver, precious stones, and mineral oil. Sixteen reward claims of not more than one acre in extent may be awarded, under specified conditions, to any prospector who makes an original discovery of precious stones or of gold or silver.

(5) MANUFACTURES

Beyond the preliminary processes of preparing agricultural products for export, Nyasaland has no manufactures that can be called important. The number of cotton gins in the Protectorate is approximately 240; there are nearly twice as many flue-curing barns for tobacco, and there is also a considerable number of coffee hullers, pulpers, and separators, and of decorticators for sisal and Mauritius hemp. The Imperial Tobacco Company has a factory containing, in addition to curing barns and storage rooms, complete plant for treating tobacco by steam with a view to export, power-saws and other machinery for cask-making, and all the equipment necessary for pressing and packing. Blantyre and East Africa, Ltd., also has a factory for turning out cigarettes and various kinds of tobacco, and for preparing and packing the leaf for export. There is a flour-mill at Chiromo, and there are a few maize-mills, besides other plant for grinding wheat and native grains. A soap factory at Blantyre seems to have failed to survive the experimental stage when castor oil, ground-nuts, and croton seed were successively tried in combination with other local products.

Native industries include the manufacture of certain articles of domestic use, some of which are marketed and a few, such as mats and baskets and articles purchased as curios, are exported in small quantities. Pottery of a rough sort is made by native women; it comprises such vessels as cooking-pots, salt bowls, and storage jars. Native workmen, trained for the most part in the missions, are able to turn out serviceable furniture. Brickmaking also is carried on under European supervision, and native bricklayers are employed in building houses. Other crafts are the

weaving of mats and basket-work, work in brass and in gold, and the forging of assegai blades, knives, and rough agricultural implements. The war brought about a revival in the native smelting industry, and the supply of native hoes was thus usefully supplemented at a time when it was almost impossible to secure steel manufactures from Britain. The remaining products of native manufacture—huts, canoes, weapons, so-called musical instruments, and domestic utensils—have either little or no commercial significance.

(6) POWER

The power required for existing industries is supplied for the most part by oil engines. Some of the perennial streams of the highland districts appear to offer possibilities of the utilization of water-power for electric installations, but the conditions have not yet arisen which would call for or justify the expense of a large scheme. There is, however, an electric installation at Livingstonia which supplies the mission with light and power; and also one at Zomba for lighting purposes.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

(a) *Principal Branches of Trade*

The population of the Protectorate, European and native, with its comparatively few needs and limited purchasing powers, is insufficient to create an internal trade comparable with that of a European community. Trade, however, is well organized, considering the conditions and means of transport. The stores at Blantyre, Zomba, and Fort Johnston cater for the usual needs of European residents, while the natives procure all that they can wish and afford to buy from the

stores established in the towns and villages and at the cross roads or other points of vantage throughout the country. The stores are managed sometimes by Nyasaland natives but more usually by Indian traders, some of whom are employed or financed by the large companies. The African Lakes Corporation, for instance, owns over 120 establishments, run by Europeans, Indians, and natives. Indians also trade actively as pedlars, purchasing from the importing European houses supplies with which they penetrate to the remotest parts of the country.

The European stores trade mainly in clothing and footwear, provisions and medicines, liquors, hardware and cutlery, agricultural requisites, stationery, cycles, arms and ammunition. The chief article of native trade is cotton, in the piece or made up into shirts, scarves, handkerchiefs, &c. Other items are blankets, hoes, beads, wire, lanterns, and the various articles usually classed as 'Kaffir truck' in South Africa.

(b) *Towns and Markets*

The chief towns of the Protectorate are Blantyre, Zomba, Fort Johnston, Chiromo, Port Herald, and Limbe, which are all municipalities levying rates that vary between $1\frac{1}{4}d.$ and $2\frac{3}{4}d.$ in the £ on the capital value of property, and produce revenues ranging (in 1916-17) from £573 (Blantyre) to £55 (Fort Johnston). The chief trade centre is *Blantyre*, which has a European population of about 300 and contains the head-quarters of the Church of Scotland Mission and—at Mandala, now a suburb—the principal station of the African Lakes Corporation. The town is well built, with a large church and mission buildings, a hotel, post and telegraph offices, stores and offices of the trading companies, and private residences. *Zomba* is the administrative capital of the Protectorate,

and contains the Government offices and official residences, the head-quarters of the military forces, and a number of European and Indian stores. *Port Herald*, on the Shire river, is the chief customs station for the Protectorate, being the entry port by river and the first halt on the railway. *Chiromo*, farther north, has declined somewhat in consequence of the dwindling Shire traffic. *Kota Kota* and *Karonga*, on Lake Nyasa, are likely to gain in importance with the development of the north-western districts and the territories beyond.

The markets established at all important centres are appreciated by the natives, who readily bring their produce for sale. They seem to realize the advantage of competitive sales, and to profit by their experience of market methods, especially in regard to native-grown cotton. Cotton, tobacco, and other products offered in large quantities are bought for export, mostly by European or Indian traders.

(c) *Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce*

A Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1895, with the aim of promoting the commerce and agriculture of the Protectorate. In 1907 it was amalgamated with the Planters' Association and, while retaining its original purpose, was renamed the Associated Chamber of Agriculture and Commerce.

The services rendered to agriculture and commerce by the British Cotton Growing Association and by the Imperial Tobacco Company have already been noticed (see pp. 48, 50). The two great land and trading companies, the British Central Africa Company and the African Lakes Corporation, have while serving their own interests done much useful work in furthering trade and in improving communications and maintaining transport services. The work

of the missions in educating natives in agriculture, in handicrafts, and in commercial methods, has raised their economic value, and by increasing output has materially benefited trade, both external and internal.

(d) *British and Foreign Interests*

The capital by the use of which the commercial development of the Protectorate has been effected was raised almost exclusively in the United Kingdom. Nyasaland is too remote to be likely to attract non-British investors, but although German East Africa offered rival and superior advantages for German enterprise, there were a number of German firms established in the Protectorate when war broke out.

The largest company operating in Nyasaland is the British Central Africa Company, which has an authorized capital of £1,500,000. It owns about 350,000 acres of land, cultivates plantations of cotton, tobacco, tea, and fibre, conducts an extensive store trade, runs two steamers between Beira and Chinde, and, with its flotilla of seven stern-wheel steamers, maintains a river service from Chinde to the railway. The company has always been interested in railway development; it still holds shares to the nominal value of £67,000 and £280,000 in the Central Africa Railway Company and Shire Highlands Railway Company respectively, and it is understood to be promoting further projects of railway extension (see p. 30).

The second of the great companies is the African Lakes Corporation, which, working at first in close connexion with missionary enterprise, was active in Nyasaland before the Protectorate was established. Its authorized capital is £250,000, and its operations include a very extensive trading business, foreign and domestic, transport services by four stern-wheelers on the Zambezi and Shire, and by two steamers on Lake

Nyasa, and the cultivation on a large scale of cotton, tobacco, tea, and rubber. Its land holdings amount to approximately 150,000 acres, part of this area being leased to planters. Its banking business, with headquarters at Blantyre, and branches at Zomba, Chiromo, and Chinde, was recently made over to the National Bank of South Africa.

Blantyre and East Africa, Ltd., has an authorized capital of £88,086. It holds over 150,000 acres, leases some of its properties to tenants, and on its own plantations cultivates chiefly tea, tobacco, and cotton. A. L. Bruce Estates has holdings exceeding 20,000 acres, and grows cotton and tobacco with energy and success. The London and Blantyre Supply Company conducts a wholesale merchant business; it also owns a considerable acreage of land and cultivates cotton, tobacco, and Ceara rubber.

Among the business establishments in Blantyre before the war there was one with head-quarters in Rotterdam—the Central Africa Trading Company (late B. Besseling & Co.)—and two with head-quarters in Hamburg—Ludwig Deuss & Co. and E. H. C. Michahelles & Co. There was also a store owned by a German subject, Hermann Werth. At Fort Johnston there was a store of which the owner professed to be of Swiss origin. These appear to have been the most prominent enterprises of foreign origin within the Protectorate. In judging their importance, account must be taken not only of the scale of their operations, but also of the small number of such businesses in Nyasaland. Besides the stores belonging to the British companies mentioned above, and the mission stores at Dowa, Kawimbe, and Mitsidi, there are only some half-dozen in the whole Protectorate which do any considerable business, and most of these belong to Indians. Of the German firms, the most active and

successful was Ludwig Deuss & Co., who, besides acting as agents for the Deutsche Ost-Afrika Linie and conducting a large import and export trade, carried on a most extensive transport and forwarding business in Rhodesia and Portuguese East Africa as well as Nyasaland, and had establishments at Brokers Hill, at Tete, Beira, and Quelimane, and at Blantyre, Chiromo, and Chinde. Steps were taken in the course of the war to close down and liquidate the German firms.

(e) *Economic Penetration*

The investigations made into the affairs of the German firms showed that these houses enjoyed a large percentage of the European and native trade, and were in particular absorbing the relatively small but profitable salt, dairying, and slaughter businesses.

The success of the German firms seems to have been due not only to energy and ability in business, but also to the privileges they enjoyed of special export rates on German railways, low freights on German ships belonging to the subsidized Deutsche Ost-Afrika Linie, and long credits granted by German banks and business houses. The liquidator of enemy firms, in his report, recommended that in future measures should be taken to limit the investment of foreign capital in Protectorate enterprises, and to prevent these from coming under the control of foreign influences; and also that the Protectorate Government, in co-operation with a local committee of business men, should take vigorous and sustained action to promote trade with the United Kingdom and the dominions and colonies.

(2) FOREIGN

(a) *Exports*

(i) *Quantities and Values.*—The chief products exported from Nyasaland were noticed under the headings

Agriculture and Minerals (see pp. 42, 62), and some particulars were there given regarding quantities produced and exported. Official returns for the five years ending March 31, 1914, show that of the twelve chief items on the list of exports the average quantities exported annually were as follows :

| | lb. | | lb. |
|-----------------|-----------|------------------|--------|
| Tobacco . . . | 2,255,956 | Beeswax . . . | 94,420 |
| Cotton . . . | 2,008,016 | Rubber . . . | 78,711 |
| Maize . . . | 1,960,327 | Tea . . . | 60,864 |
| Ground-nuts . . | 538,424 | Fibre . . . | 49,263 |
| Coffee . . . | 451,131 | Strophanthus . . | 12,694 |
| Chillies . . . | 124,779 | Ivory . . . | 10,685 |

The war affected agricultural production in the Protectorate as in other African dependencies, but in the chief categories the tendencies which had revealed themselves before 1914 were only emphasized in later years. Thus, on the average for the three years ending March 31, 1917, there was a fall in the export of rubber and coffee, but very marked rises in tobacco, cotton, tea, and fibre. The war interfered with the collection of ivory, and the closing of enemy markets resulted in reduced exports of ground-nuts and strophanthus, though the latter product, in consequence of a brisk demand by British chemists, was being shipped in larger quantities by 1916.

Noticeable differences between production figures and export figures are shown in the official publications. A divergence of this kind may be due to domestic consumption of some portion of the crop, as with tea and tobacco, or to the inclusion in the Protectorate export figures of consignments produced in neighbouring territories but exported *via* Blantyre, or again to the fact that part of one year's crop is not infrequently exported during the following year.

The values of the exports for the five years ending

March 31, 1917, are shown in Table I of the Appendix (p. 85). The chief feature of this return is the preponderance of the cotton and tobacco exports, which together represent two-thirds of the total value of exports, specie included, for the five years. The figures include, without distinguishing, the values of products in transit through Nyasaland from adjacent territories. The average value of such transit exports in the five years immediately preceding the war was nearly £22,000, and the products in question comprised ivory, cotton, rubber, and tobacco from Northern Rhodesia, and ivory, beeswax, and unmanufactured tobacco from Portuguese East Africa. With German East Africa the transit trade, import as well as export, was negligible, since the south-western districts of that Protectorate were sufficiently served by Lake Tanganyika and the Central Railway to Dar-es-Salaam.

(ii) *Countries of Destination.*—The export figures show that during the five years immediately preceding the war three-fourths of all exports were consigned to the United Kingdom, and of the other fourth slightly more than half went to British dependencies. Of the remaining 12 per cent., approximately half went to Germany, and half to Portuguese East Africa, Portugal, and other foreign countries.

During the war the closing of enemy markets tended at first to affect adversely the export of those products which had previously been sent for the most part to Germany. But new opportunities soon presented themselves abroad and at home. Foreign markets in the first year of war absorbed 15 per cent. of the exports, but by 1915 the United Kingdom was receiving 94 per cent., while foreign countries took less than 3 per cent. and British possessions the remainder.

In pre-war years the greater part of the annual exports of beeswax, ground-nuts, and strophanthus

went to Hamburg, and the other commodities which Germany purchased were, in order of value, rubber, maize, coffee, cotton, oilseeds, tobacco, and chillies. For ground-nuts and tobacco there was an increasing demand; of the total export of these products during the last four months preceding the war, Germany took 33 per cent. (765,240 lb.) of the tobacco and 70 per cent. of the ground-nuts. Smaller quantities of ground-nuts went to France. Portuguese East Africa bought maize, maize flour, potatoes, and cotton seed. The United Kingdom was by far the best customer for almost all the products of the Protectorate.

(b) *Imports*

(i) *Quantities and Values.*—The average annual value of each of the chief classes of trade imports for the last five pre-war years was as follows:

| | £ |
|---|---------|
| Cotton piece-goods and other textiles | 126,807 |
| Provisions | 23,864 |
| Machinery and hardware | 20,702 |
| Arms and ammunition | 3,112 |
| Alcoholic liquors ¹ | 2,704 |

The outstanding feature of the annual import returns is the dwarfing of the other items by the textiles. It may be estimated that the Nyasaland native spends on the average 2s. 4d. per annum on cotton and other clothing. All the items, cotton included, are such as occur in similar ratio on the import lists of most African dependencies.

The values of the imports of all classes for the five years ending March 31, 1917, are shown in Table II of the Appendix (p. 85). The figures include, without distinguishing, goods imported in transit to neighbouring territories; in pre-war years these averaged £14,000,

¹ Prior to 1914 wine and beer were included under Provisions.

and consisted largely of trade goods consigned by Nyasaland firms to their branch stores in Northern Rhodesia.

(ii) *Countries of Origin*.—Slightly over 70 per cent. of all imports during the five years ending March 31, 1914, were drawn from Great Britain, close on 8 per cent. from British dependencies, almost 10 per cent. from Germany, under 6 per cent. from Portugal and Portuguese East Africa, 4 per cent. from Holland, and the remaining 2 per cent. from other foreign countries.

The imports from Germany consisted mainly of the cheaper lines of hardware and enamel ware, stationery, tools, and native truck, and of considerable quantities of cotton and woollen manufactures. Austria supplied beads, fez caps, and Hungarian flour. The imports from Holland were presumably for the most part cheap cotton prints. Apart from these categories, manufactured goods of all kinds were imported almost exclusively from the United Kingdom.

During the war British goods enjoyed practically a monopoly of the trade. The increase latterly in the total value of the imports may be attributed in part to normal expansion, temporarily checked in the preceding two years, but also in part to special demands arising from the campaign in German and Portuguese East Africa, and to the rise in prices due to increased cost of production and heavy charges for freight and insurance.

(c) *Customs and Tariffs*

As Nyasaland falls within the sphere included in the Berlin Act of 1885 and the Brussels Act of 1890, its customs charges are limited by the provisions of those acts. (See *Belgian Congo*, No. 99, and *Mozambique*, No. 121, of this series.)

Export dues are levied on ivory (9*d.* per lb.), on

gold other than gold coins (1s. per oz.), on beeswax and on hippopotamus teeth (each 1d. per lb.).

A duty of 10 per cent. *ad valorem* at the port of shipment is charged on all unexempted imports except alcohol, which pays 15s. per gallon proof spirit.

Road and river dues of 1s. per cwt. are charged on imports for domestic use or consumption, or in transit through the Protectorate. Wharfage at the rate of $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. *ad valorem* is levied on imports and exports, and a registration fee of 6d. per package is payable on all duty-free imports and on goods in transit.

The goods that are exempt from import dues, road and river dues, and wharfage include current coins, live-stock, native foodstuffs, printed matter, goods imported by post, disinfectants, goods in transit, goods imported by and for the use of the Protectorate Government, and personal baggage belonging to specified officials. Exemption from import duties alone is extended to boats, yachts, and ships, agricultural and industrial machinery, manures and insecticides, trees, plants, and seeds intended for cultivation, gunny bags and sacking; also to personal baggage, to naval, military, and civil service uniforms and camp kit, and to sundry other varieties of goods.

(d) *Commercial Treaties*

The various treaties and conventions which affect Nyasaland politically and commercially have already been referred to (pp. 13-18).

(D) FINANCE

(1) PUBLIC FINANCE

Nyasaland is now a self-supporting protectorate, with domestic revenue sufficient in normal times to meet expenditure. The table below shows how revenue developed and overtook expenditure during the years

1908-17. The annual deficits in former years were made good by grants-in-aid from the Imperial Treasury. In 1911 the grant-in-aid was £31,500; next year it fell to £5,000; and no grant was required in 1913 or in subsequent years.

| <i>Year.</i> | <i>Revenue.</i> £ | <i>Expenditure.</i> £ |
|---------------|----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1907-8 . . . | 75,197 | 105,587 |
| 1908-9 . . . | 80,534 | 103,032 |
| 1909-10 . . . | 76,647 | 108,728 |
| 1910-11 . . . | 94,980 | 112,369 |
| 1911-12 . . . | 97,356 | 118,070 |
| 1912-13 . . . | 128,273 | 116,361 |
| 1913-14 . . . | 124,849 | 133,106 |
| 1914-15 . . . | 118,523 | 143,161 |
| 1915-16 . . . | 137,911 | 125,665 |
| 1916-17 . . . | 148,283 | 128,272 |

The revenue figures include the sums, averaging £565 per annum, obtained from sales of Crown lands. They include also, for the first five years of the series, annual contributions of £8,000 made by the British South Africa Company for the upkeep of Fort Manning, besides a special grant of £2,000 in 1908-9. The annual grants made in the early years of the Protectorate in respect of the administration of Northern Rhodesia had been discontinued in 1895, when the company assumed direct control of that region.

Revenue.—Details of the revenue for five years are given in Table III A of the Appendix (p. 86). More than half the receipts are obtained from the proceeds of the native hut tax, which is a charge of 8s. levied on each native who owns a hut, reduced to 4s. if the hut owner has worked one month for a European. The item second in importance is the yield of the customs dues, which fell considerably after the outbreak of war, but recovered in 1915-16, and rose to £34,144 in 1916-17. Similar fluctuations took place in port, harbour, and wharf dues. The land tax of $\frac{1}{2}d.$ per acre,

levied on all land within the Protectorate except Crown lands, produces about £8,000 per annum. From licences and excise duties an average total of over £5,000 is realized. The licences are chiefly licences to conduct certain classes of business, as for instance a bank (£25), a general trading store (£25), a retail trading store (£5), a liquor canteen (£40), &c., or to practise certain trades or professions, such as that of pleader (£25), auctioneer (£5), native law agent (£1), hawkers (£2), &c.

Expenditure.—The various items of expenditure may be seen from the statement in Table III B of the Appendix (p. 87). The chief expenses are in connexion with district administration, public works, and military and medical services; and the general impression produced by a perusal of the figures is that the available funds are carefully apportioned to the different services, and economically administered. The education grant of £1,000, made to a number of missions which give the natives not only religious instruction but industrial and vocational training, seems scarcely commensurate with the reasonable claims of the native taxpayers and the value to the Protectorate of the secular education given by these institutions.

During the years of war very large sums were expended on military operations. The first year's outlay of £30,183 was followed by annual totals of £173,509 and £415,668, giving an aggregate war expenditure, to the close of the year 1916–17, of £619,360. To enable it to meet these heavy payments the Protectorate borrowed from the Imperial Treasury various sums, bearing interest at various rates, and amounting, on March 31, 1917, to £431,000.

Public Debt.—The war loans just mentioned constitute over two-thirds of the public debt. The other items are two further loans from the Imperial Treasury.

One of these, a sum of £12,000, is the first instalment of the 4 per cent. loan of £803,000 for the improvement of road and railway communications (see p. 31). The other, a sum of £180,000, was borrowed, at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., for the purpose of redeeming from the Shire Highlands (Nyasaland) Railway, Ltd., the subsidy lands, 361,000 acres in extent, granted to the company by the terms of the contracts for the construction of the railway. The total public debt in 1917 was thus £623,900.

(2) CURRENCY

The currency of the Protectorate consists of British coin, gold, silver, and bronze. There is no note circulation.

The specie declared as imports during the seventeen years ending March 31, 1914, included gold to the value of £12,400, silver, £79,420, and bronze, £2,225; while exports included gold, £180,881, silver, £44,046, and bronze, £20. The excess exportation of gold was due to the action of the banks in clearing the accumulation of gold coin brought into the Protectorate by natives returning from employment in Rhodesia and Transvaal.

(3) BANKING

The Standard Bank of South Africa has a branch at Blantyre, which affords the usual facilities, and also an agency at Limbe.

The African Lakes Corporation formerly conducted a banking business, and had branches at Blantyre and Zomba, and agencies at Chinde and the principal stations in the Protectorate. Its deposits amounted to £108,710 in 1916. Recently, however, the Corporation transferred its banking business to the National Bank of South Africa, which, while maintaining existing

branches at Blantyre, Zomba, Fort Jameson (North Rhodesia), and Chinde, has established new branches at Limbe and Fort Johnston.

The Post Office Savings Bank has branches at Zomba, Blantyre, Fort Johnston, and Port Herald. By the end of 1913 the deposits amounted to £4,568. There were 228 depositors, of whom 60 were Europeans, 32 Indians, and 104 natives, while the rest held trustee accounts.

(4) INFLUENCE OF FOREIGN CAPITAL

The foreign capital invested in the country was furnished mainly by German houses. Their policy of fostering trade with Germany was natural and indeed inevitable, and was prosecuted with ability and persistence. Their local representatives ascertained and catered for the requirements of the German markets, and energetically pushed those lines of imported wares which, though coarse or flimsy, were commended to native customers by their cheapness. Again, the facilities offered for passengers and cargo using the Deutsche Ost-Afrika Linie were ably advertised by the officials and agents of the company. Finally, the success with which the German firms had established and were consolidating their position within the Protectorate and securing control of certain minor classes of trade has been noticed under Domestic Commerce (see p. 70).

(5) PRINCIPAL FIELDS OF INVESTMENT

The Protectorate offers limited opportunities for the investment of capital. The population is neither large enough nor wealthy enough, nor sufficiently concentrated in big towns, to warrant expectations of high profits from ordinary trading, a province in which the new-comer would have to face the competition of the

large companies and firms already established, and of native or Indian store-keepers and hawkers. Nor again is there any special reason to expect discoveries of rich mineral deposits likely to create a mining industry. Agricultural production is probably the only source, and undoubtedly the chief source, from which an adequate reward can be anticipated for the investment of capital and the exercise of energy and forethought. Here, however, the opportunities are offered less to the home investor than to the settler. Further, not all branches of agriculture can be held to be tempting for European enterprise. Stock-breeding is at best risky ; coffee-growing and rubber-growing are doubtful ventures, and the cultivation of the more attractive crops cannot be attempted by Europeans except with the aid of considerable capital and at some danger to health. The larger and better known companies now hold strong positions, and the European investor lacking acquaintance with local conditions will feel chary of supporting new rival undertakings. Manufacturing industries on a large scale are remote possibilities, though cotton manufacture may conceivably be inaugurated at no distant date.

The Protectorate has attained a satisfactory development by somewhat slow degrees ; the improvement of communications will hasten progress, but can scarcely make it sensational or justify hopes of an immediate return on the investment of capital on a large scale,

(E) GENERAL REMARKS

The prosperity of Nyasaland has been shown in the preceding pages to depend mainly upon agricultural production. An estimate of its economic position and prospects would, therefore, involve an examination of the factors favourable or adverse to the various branches of agriculture. The requisites for successful production are first, the choice of crops suitable to local conditions of soil and climate; second, an adequate labour supply; third, cheap and expeditious transport from plantation to market; and fourth, satisfactory prices for the marketed products.

For cultivation by Europeans the most promising crops are tobacco, cotton, tea, and perhaps fibre (see pp. 45-55). Sisal hemp and other fibres have not yet established themselves as staple products, and tea can be cultivated only over a very limited area; consequently, tobacco and cotton stand in a class by themselves at the head of the list of exports. The special causes that have limited and reduced the output of coffee and rubber have already been mentioned. The other commodities—ground-nuts, chillies, rice, maize, and oil-seeds—which can be grown successfully, do not command high enough prices in the home markets to induce planters to cultivate them extensively for export. They are grown, however, in considerable quantities by natives to provide means for the payment of the hut tax. Natives also produce tobacco in some quantity, but the industry that most attracts them, owing to its practical certainty of good returns, is cotton-growing, which in Nyasaland as in Uganda has received encouragement and protection from Government as an industry specially adapted to native attainments.

The labour supply in Nyasaland is neither so plentiful

that planters can always count on securing as many hands as they desire, nor so scanty but that with the exercise of forethought a force can be obtained sufficient for the needs of the plantation. The gradually increasing shortage may be compensated by the greater employment in future of agricultural machinery and of mechanical means of transport.

The cheapness of labour has greatly assisted the development of agriculture in the past; and, although conditions arising from the war have tended to raise the standard of wages, the Protectorate will probably continue to enjoy rates appreciably lower than those of adjacent countries.

The grave defects of the existing transport system have been indicated in the section on Communications (see especially p. 21). One condition which is essential to the more uniform development of the whole country and the progress of its trade is railway connexion between Lake Nyasa and the ocean. It is, therefore, a matter of the utmost importance that the railway should as soon as possible be extended, internally northwards to the lake, externally southwards to Beira. These links once completed, other improvements would follow, such as a fuller transport service on the lake, railroads from Nyasa to Tanganyika and to Northern Rhodesia, and motor services from the lake ports to the adjacent districts. These would give a special impetus to the agricultural development of the whole north-western region, and might lead to the mining of coal and iron ore.

The fourth essential to further progress is a sufficiently high level of prices for the products when marketed. The European markets have hitherto received the bulk of the exports; and, while it is possible that India, Australia, and the United States may in future take some exports, such as cotton and fibre, it

may be expected that the United Kingdom will continue to be the Protectorate's best customer. Produce marketed in Europe, however, has to pay such heavy charges for transport by rail, river, and ocean, that the export of the lower-priced varieties can scarcely be maintained at a profit.

APPENDIX

NOTIFICATION OF THE BRITISH PROTECTORATE
OVER NYASALAND, LONDON, MAY 14, 1891

FOREIGN OFFICE, 14 May, 1891.

British Protectorate over Nyasaland Districts

It is hereby notified for public information that, under and by virtue of Agreements with the native chiefs, and by other lawful means, the territories in Africa, hereafter referred to as the Nyasaland Districts, are under the Protection of Her Majesty the Queen.

The British Protectorate of the Nyasaland Districts comprises the territories bounded on the east and south by the Portuguese Dominions; and to the west by a frontier which, starting on the south from the point where the boundary of the Portuguese Dominions is intersected by the boundary of the Conventional Free Trade Zone defined in the first article of the Berlin Act, follows that line northwards to the point where it meets the line of the geographical Congo Basin, defined in the same Article, and thence follows the latter line to the point where it touches the boundary between the British and German spheres, defined in the second paragraph of the 1st article of the Agreement of the 1st July, 1890.

Measures are in course of preparation for the administration of justice and the maintenance of peace and good order in the Nyasaland Districts.

(Published in *London Gazette* of May 15, 1891.)

TABLE I.—EXPORTS, 1913-17

| | 1912-13. | 1913-14. | 1914-15. | 1915-16. | 1916-17. |
|---|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| Beeswax | 5,064 | 4,961 | 5,722 | 5,994 | 3,436 |
| Capsicums and chillies | 3,166 | 178 | 130 | 269 | 3,133 |
| Castor-oil seed | 327 | 105 | 71 | 61 | 77 |
| Coffee | 4,868 | 4,802 | 2,487 | 2,651 | 3,285 |
| Cotton | 83,868 | 72,381 | 78,308 | 72,625 | 132,339 |
| Cotton seed | 974 | 329 | 2,143 | 622 | 516 |
| Fibre | 1,256 | 330 | 623 | 2,501 | 4,056 |
| Ground-nuts | 12 | 5,163 | 3,772 | 1,912 | 454 |
| Ivory | 4,911 | 3,515 | 1,284 | 1,824 | 937 |
| Live-stock | 1,155 | — | 6 | 22 | 6 |
| Maize and maize flour | — | 253 | 287 | 2,168 | 538 |
| Mica | 2,026 | 926 | 545 | 409 | 78 |
| Potatoes | 46 | 48 | 84 | 132 | 249 |
| Rice | — | — | 113 | 31 | 83 |
| Rubber | 19,585 | 11,195 | 3,608 | 3,809 | 6,072 |
| Sesame seed | 605 | 206 | — | — | 124 |
| Strophanthus | 2,623 | 193 | 80 | 22 | 1,178 |
| Tea | 1,693 | 2,902 | 4,156 | 8,585 | 14,023 |
| Teeth (hippo.) | 35 | 16 | 19 | 19 | 8 |
| Tobacco | 60,201 | 97,482 | 84,549 | 98,017 | 118,004 |
| Miscellaneous and un- classified | 2,609 | 11,480 | 5,837 | 11,237 | 13,470 |
| Specie | 53,490 | 49,623 | 41,855 | 50,758 | 42,196 |
| | 248,514 | 266,088 | 235,679 | 263,668 | 344,262 |

TABLE II.—IMPORTS, 1913-17

| | 1912-13. | 1913-14. | 1914-15. | 1915-16. | 1916-17. |
|---|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| Cotton piece-goods, | 176,785 | 107,287 | { 70,400 | 104,296 | 208,798 |
| scarves, handkerchiefs | | | { 25,401 | 12,048 | 21,604 |
| Textiles, various | 31,622 | 23,465 | { 16,527 | 33,235 | 31,383 |
| Provisions | | | { 2,377 | 1,432 | 2,045 |
| Beer and ale | 2,792 | { 2,189 | { 3,831 | 5,764 | 8,618 |
| Wines and spirits | | | { 1,091 | 1,570 | 4,294 |
| Tobacco | 1,776 | — | 3,622 | 3,914 | 5,654 |
| Kerosene | 978 | 2,110 | 2,476 | 776 | 578 |
| Arms and ammunition | 3,254 | 5,309 | 9,202 | 6,530 | 13,846 |
| Hardware, glass, china, &c. | 30,907 | 15,918 | 8,380 | 4,460 | 9,186 |
| Machinery, agricultural and other | — | 7,728 | 5,991 | 5,406 | 6,568 |
| Vehicles | — | 4,534 | 257 | 8,450 | 841 |
| Railway materials | — | — | 857 | 1,266 | 1,693 |
| Leather and leather manu- factures | — | — | 1,864 | 1,984 | 4,416 |
| Stationery and ink | — | 3,169 | 1,540 | 2,682 | 5,871 |
| Soap | — | — | 87 | 50 | 182 |
| Building materials and household effects | — | 5,013 | 13,441 | 15,930 | 24,373 |
| Personal effects | — | — | 25,838 | 17,541 | 22,535 |
| Miscellaneous and un- enumerated | 70,178 | 29,192 | 9,752 | 21,478 | 29,451 |
| Government imports | — | — | 1,452 | 4,591 | 21,787 |
| Specie | 4,100 | 420 | | | |
| | 322,392 | 208,711 | 202,798 | 253,403 | 423,723 |

TABLE III.—PUBLIC FINANCE

(A) REVENUE, 1913-17

| <i>Head of Revenue.</i> | 1912-13. | 1913-14. | 1914-15. | 1915-16. | 1916-17. |
|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| Customs | 26,543 | 17,492 | 16,449 | 21,571 | 34,144 |
| Ports, harbours, and wharf dues | 9,004 | 5,956 | 6,307 | 6,705 | 8,811 |
| Native hut tax | 65,685 | 69,810 | 71,755 | 76,679 | 78,478 |
| Land tax | 7,991 | 8,085 | 7,976 | 8,072 | 8,009 |
| Licences, excise, &c. . . | 5,334 | 5,675 | 5,232 | 9,690 | 4,535 |
| Fees of court or office . | 1,553 | 3,154 | 1,420 | 5,366 | 3,156 |
| Post Office | 4,560 | 7,013 | 4,100 | 3,835 | 5,187 |
| Rents of Government property | 3,172 | 3,065 | 3,357 | 3,001 | 2,862 |
| Interest | 382 | 1,214 | 765 | 507 | 377 |
| Miscellaneous receipts . | 3,372 | 3,020 | 1,162 | 1,808 | 2,209 |
| | 127,596 | 124,484 | 118,523 | 137,234 | 147,768 |
| Land sales | 677 | 365 | — | 677 | 515 |
| Imperial grant-in-aid . | 5,000 | — | — | — | — |
| | 133,273 | 124,849 | 118,523 | 137,911 | 148,283 |

TABLE III (*continued*)

(B) EXPENDITURE, 1913-17

| <i>Head of Expenditure.</i> | 1912-13. | 1913-14. | 1914-15. | 1915-16. | 1916-17. |
|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| | £ | £ | £ | £ | £ |
| Charge on account of Public Debts | — | 1,750 | 4,025 | 6,852 | 14,029 |
| Pensions | 4,089 | 4,509 | 4,567 | 5,059 | 5,758 |
| The Governor | 2,501 | 2,111 | 3,283 | 2,569 | 2,492 |
| Deputy Governor's Department | 4,646 | 5,015 | 4,316 | 4,300 | 3,199 |
| Printing and Stationery Department | 2,318 | 3,108 | 3,089 | 2,702 | 3,414 |
| District Administration | 23,747 | 25,301 | 26,791 | 26,073 | 25,995 |
| Treasury Department | 4,331 | 4,353 | 4,008 | 3,878 | 3,883 |
| Customs Department | 1,811 | 1,978 | 2,257 | 2,410 | 2,266 |
| Audit Department | 1,492 | 1,610 | 1,601 | 962 | 1,188 |
| Marine Transport Department | 3,655 | 4,633 | 4,368 | 3,241 | 3,151 |
| Judicial and Legal Department | 2,985 | 3,088 | 2,433 | 2,656 | 3,233 |
| Prisons and Lunatic Asylum | 1,702 | 2,423 | 2,221 | 2,561 | 2,779 |
| Medical Department | 9,508 | 9,633 | 9,965 | 9,288 | 8,808 |
| Medical Special Expenditure: Scientific Commission | 5,130 | 5,214 | 3,466 | — | — |
| Education | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 | 1,000 |
| Transport Department | 2,131 | 1,887 | 2,097 | 2,123 | 2,307 |
| Military | 16,550 | 12,668 | 12,942 | 11,426 | 9,731 |
| Miscellaneous Expenditure | 2,282 | 1,813 | 1,450 | 1,664 | 1,385 |
| Lands Department | — | — | 1,378 | 1,476 | 1,191 |
| Post Office | 5,785 | 5,465 | 5,688 | 5,718 | 5,974 |
| Agricultural, Forestry, and Veterinary Department | 4,996 | 7,406 | 7,176 | 7,429 | 7,316 |
| Public Works Department | 5,528 | 6,127 | 5,665 | 5,732 | 5,060 |
| Public Works annually recurrent | 2,829 | 3,331 | 3,100 | 3,265 | 2,965 |
| Public Works extraordinary | 5,450 | 12,171 | 7,848 | 1,495 | 3,290 |
| Railway Extension | 1,475 | 6,153 | 18,087 | 10,927 | 7,895 |
| Bombay and London Agencies | 420 | 359 | 340 | 859 | [Cr. 37] |
| | 116,361 | 133,106 | 143,161 | 125,665 | 128,272 |
| Loan Expenditure : | | | | | |
| (a) Railway and Roads | — | — | 6,142 | 2,963 | 3,329 |
| (b) War Expenses | — | — | 30,183 | 173,510 | 415,667 |
| (c) Redemption of Railway Subsidy Lands | 50,000 | — | 65,000 | 50,000 | — |
| | 166,361 | 133,106 | 244,486 | 352,138 | 547,268 |

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MAPS

A special map of the 'Nyasaland Protectorate', on the
scale of 1 : 1,000,000, has been issued (1908) by the War Office
(G.S.G.S. 2136).

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